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British Possessions are coloured red and underlined thus: - Bermuda

Map of the World, 1850. The map shows the continents of North America, South America, Africa, Asia, and Australia. It also depicts the Arctic Circle, the Tropic of Cancer, and the Tropic of Capricorn. Various islands and territories are labeled, including the British Possessions in the Caribbean (Bermuda, Barbados, Antigua, etc.), the Cape Colony in Africa, and the Straits Settlements in Asia. The map is oriented with North at the top.

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THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

BY

P. H. AND A. C. KERR

WITH ADDITIONAL MATTER ON INDIAN HISTORY

BY

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*WITH 4 COLOURED ILLUSTRATIONS, 4 COLOURED MAPS
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THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

PART I PERIOD OF TRAINING

CHAPTER I

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

"The land we from our fathers had in trust,
And to our children will transmit or die:
This is our maxim, this our piety;
And God and nature say that it is just."

—WORDSWORTH.

1. WE hear a great deal nowadays about the British Empire; how great it is, how it is spread all over the face of the world, so that the sun is always shining on some part of it, and we feel very proud of belonging to it. But do we ever stop to think what we really mean by it? What is the British Empire? What is it made up of, and how did it ever come to be? What is it going to be in the future? We know a little about it; we know that it consists of a lot of different countries in different parts of the world, and that they are all joined in some way or another, and all have the same king. But do we know which are the countries that are

2 THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

joined together, or how they came to be joined, or what it is that keeps them together now? All these things we must know, if we are to understand about the British Empire.

2. Look at the map at the beginning of the book and you will see that a large part of it is painted red; that is the British Empire. There is huge Canada; there is South Africa; there is Australia, a continent in herself, and close beside her New Zealand; there is India, and there are many other countries, and islands more than you can count; and in the middle is tiny England, which is the Mother-country of them all. They are all one big family. England is the Mother-land and they are the children. They are linked to one another by the sea, and together they make up the British Empire.

3. You know how, in a real family, the members are all different; some are big and old and like to walk by themselves, and some are still small and want to hold their mother's hand. So it is with the Empire. Some of England's children are quite grown up and can not only manage their own affairs, but can take their share in the conduct of the Empire's business. Some of them she still holds by the hand. But, whatever their age, they are all fond of their Mother and of each other, and they all stand together whenever danger threatens or they have a common work to do.

4. We have said that all the countries of the Empire are different. Now we are not going to try to understand all the differences, for there are so many that we should only get muddled, but there is one we must notice, for it divides the countries into two big sets,

Look at the map at the beginning, and you will see that some of the red-painted places are at the top, and some at the bottom, and some in the middle of the page. You know that in the middle of the map is the Equator, and that places in the Tropics, as the parts of the world near the Equator are called, are generally very hot and inhabited chiefly by brown and black races; and you know too that at the very top and bottom of the map are the Poles and the Arctic regions, where nobody lives at all. But in between the two Arctic circles and the Tropics are the temperate zones, where the climate is mild and white people live and work and make their homes.

5. Now look at the countries painted red which lie within these temperate zones. In the northern half of the map are the British Isles—the heart of the Empire—which are altogether in the temperate zone. Then comes Canada, so large that a great part of it stretches up into the Arctic regions, and Newfoundland close beside it. In the south temperate zone you will find Australia and South Africa, though parts of both of them stretch up into the Tropics. And, lastly, there is New Zealand, which, like the British Isles, is altogether in the temperate zone. These five countries are the most important parts of the Empire. England, as you know, is the Mother-country, and Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand are the Dominions, as her grown-up daughters are called. They all lie mostly in the temperate zones, and are inhabited by large numbers of white people, and they are all self-governing states. That is to say, they conduct their own affairs in their own way, which, as we shall see, the other parts of the Empire have not yet learnt to do.

4 THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

But it is England who still principally manages the outside affairs of the whole Empire and its dealings with foreign nations, though the Dominions are yearly taking a larger share in the conduct of foreign affairs and the cost of defence.

6. The other parts of the Empire, except some little islands, lie inside the Tropics. They are mostly inhabited by black and brown people, who are still uncivilised, or who have not yet fully learnt to govern their own countries with peace and justice. These countries are called Dependencies, because they depend for protection and good government on the self-governing states. Only a few white people live in them, as missionaries, or officials of the Government, or traders and engineers, or foremen on railways and harbours. The chief Dependencies can be divided into three groups. In the first group are India (a great country, with so many inhabitants that they make up one-sixth of all the people in the world), the island of Ceylon, and the Malay Peninsula in Asia. In the second group are Egypt and the Sudan along the Nile, Uganda, British East Africa, and Nigeria, in Africa; and in the third group are the West Indies and Guiana. Besides these there are hundreds of islands and smaller pieces of land scattered over the whole world, but we cannot give all their names here. All these wide lands form part of the Empire, and their government is controlled by Britain, or the four grown-up Dominions, which, as we have seen, are the self-governing partners in the Empire, have the duty of seeing that the Dependencies are properly and justly governed, and safe from the attack of any enemy.

7. But the most important point to be noted about the

British Empire is that it is not an Empire in the old-fashioned sense of the word, that is to say, a number of races and peoples held together, largely by force, under a strong centralised government. It is rather an association of peoples united by their common love of liberty, justice, and self-government, and by political institutions which protect their rights against attack both from within and without. The Empire has no strong central government. Its only outward bond of unity is the Crown and the Union Jack. Its real foundation is the mutual affection of its peoples for one another and for the ideals of life and government which they support. As we shall show later, the people, first of England and later of the rest of the Empire, have been safe and prosperous just in proportion as they were faithful to the ideals and principles upon which their Commonwealth was founded. And the history of the Empire is largely concerned with the growth of freedom and self-government within its boundaries, and with the attempts of less free and progressive peoples to interfere with that freedom and to prevent it spreading over the world.

CHAPTER II

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

1. WE have now found out something about what we mean when we talk of the British Empire. We have learnt that it is a great family of States, made up of five self-governing peoples—England, the Mother-country, and her grown-up daughter Dominions—

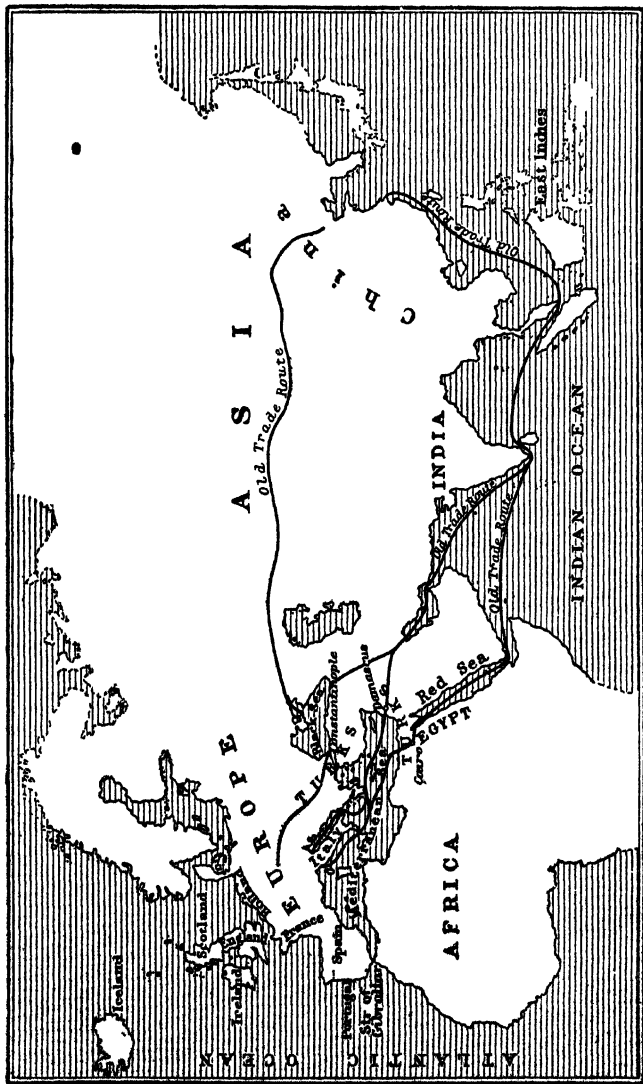
6 THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

and a great number of other races and peoples who are only beginning to learn how to manage their own affairs, united by a common love of one another and of their free institutions and civilisation. This great Empire did not come into being all at once. It was very small to begin with, but it gradually grew larger and greater, until to-day it covers one-fifth of all the land on the globe, and contains nearly one-quarter of the human race.

2. If we are to understand properly how the Empire was built up we must begin by going back a long way in history, to the time, five hundred years ago, when England had no possessions beyond the sea, and when America, South Africa, and Australia had not even been heard of. At that time people only knew about Europe, and the north of Africa, and Asia. They had no idea that the earth was round, or that there were great continents full of gold and silver, corn and wood, coal and iron, and other riches on the other side of the globe. They had no railways to help them to move about, or newspapers and telegraphs to bring news of foreign countries, and even the roads were bad and dangerous, because of robbers and brigands. Their ships, too, were only tiny cockle-shells driven headlong before the wind, and often swallowed up by the waves or dashed to pieces on the rocks. So that travel, which is easy enough now when we have express trains and fast steamers, and fine hotels and news of what is going on at home at every stopping-place, was difficult and dangerous then, and naturally people were inclined to stay at home.

3. But ~~about this~~ time, five hundred years ago, the people of Europe seemed to wake up. The

THE WORLD BEFORE THE AGE OF DISCOVERY



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Renaissance had opened men's minds to new ideas and to new needs. They wished to make their houses more comfortable, and their clothes more beautiful, and their feasts more splendid; so a great demand arose for gorgeous stuffs, and gold, and jewels, and all sorts of fruits and spices which were not to be found in their own countries, but had to be brought from other lands far away. Then inventions and discoveries were made. People learnt that the earth was round, and that if you only travelled long enough in one direction you would come back to the place you started from. Another famous discovery was the mariner's compass, which told the sailors how to guide their ships, so that they no longer had to creep along the shore, but could venture boldly out across the ocean. Then people began to build bigger ships, and sailors and merchants set forth in them to bring back the stuffs, and fruits, and jewels, for which the people of Europe were ready to pay high prices.

4. Most of these valuable articles were brought from the far-away countries of the East, like India and China. There had always been a good deal of trade between Europe and the countries of Asia, and for some time it had been rapidly increasing. As you will see on the map, there were three or four great trade routes by which the merchants travelled backwards and forwards. But these were difficult and dangerous, and the merchants were anxious to find new and safer roads. About this time too (1450) a fierce people called the Ottoman Turks rose up, who hated Christendom, and attacked and took the city of Constantinople.

The Turks made the journey to the East by the old routes even more dangerous. So the merchants began to promise great rewards to any one who could find a new way to India and China, or discover new countries from which they could obtain their goods. These promises naturally aroused the men who loved an exciting, adventurous, roving life, and they all began to think of making their fortunes by exploration. So off they set with their new compasses and their new ships on voyages of discovery—some to find new lands, some to find new ways to the old ones; and bit by bit they explored the whole face of the world, till they could draw the map very much as we know it now.

5. The first people to be stirred by the new spirit of adventure, and to set out on these voyages, were the Portuguese and the Spaniards. As you can see on the map, Portugal and Spain are on the very outside corner of Europe, so it was natural that they should lead the way out across the Atlantic Ocean, and down the coast of Africa. Besides, when the old trade routes were blocked, the ships which had been carrying goods over the Mediterranean from the East to Italy, France, and Spain, had nothing to carry so long as they remained in the Mediterranean, and they too had to sail out of the Straits of Gibraltar, and make the Portuguese and Spanish ports the starting-places for their new expeditions.

6. Prince Henry of Portugal was the first powerful man to set about exploring the world. His great object was to discover new lands for Portugal, and to send missionaries to convert the heathen and make them Christians. Many expeditions were sent out by Prince

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Henry, and though by 1460, when he died, they had not made any great discoveries, he had set the example for others to follow.

7. The period when all this took place lasted about a hundred and fifty years, from 1450 till nearly 1600, and it is called the Age of Discovery. We will now see how, by degrees, the world was explored, and what part each of the different nations took in the new discoveries.

CHAPTER III

THE PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH DISCOVERIES

1. AFTER the Turks had closed the old route to the Far East through Asia, the Portuguese began to work hard to find a new road to India by sea. To begin with, they explored down the coast of Africa. In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz had sailed as far South as the Cape, which he named the Cape of Storms. Eleven years later Vasco da Gama passed this Cape once more, and sailed on and on, until at last he reached India, and so found the new way to the East for which everybody had been anxiously waiting. People were so delighted that the Cape of Storms was renamed the Cape of Good Hope. South Africa is reminded of that famous voyage by some of her other names as well. Natal was given its name by Vasco da Gama, who passed it on Christmas Day. Algoa Bay (Port Elizabeth) means the stopping-place on the way to Goa, and Delagoa means the stopping-place on the

way from Goa; for Goa was the first possession of the Portuguese in India, and it still belongs to them.

2. It was not long before the Spaniards began to be stirred by the fever of exploration. They too wanted to reach the Indies,

but, as the Portuguese had gone East, they started out in the other direction. Christopher Columbus, a sailor from Genoa, said that if the world was round, it ought to be just as easy to reach the Indies by going West as by going East, and he was quite sure that if somebody bold enough sailed due West from Spain he would reach them. For a long time no one would listen to him or give him ships; but he was so certain that he was



right that he would not give up, and at last he persuaded the King of Spain to help him, and on August 3, 1492, six years after Diaz had discovered the Cape of Good Hope, he joyfully set sail. On and on he went for seventy days, and still there was no sign of land. His

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crew became disheartened, and threatened to throw him overboard and go back to Spain ; but he begged them to persevere for a few days more, and one morning, when they looked out, there was the land in front of them. You can imagine their delight. They found they had reached a group of islands. Columbus thought they



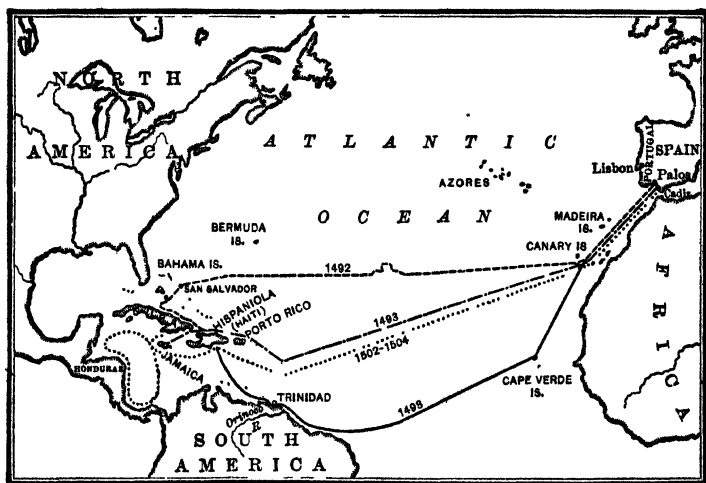
THE DEPARTURE OF COLUMBUS FROM PALOS

were part of India, and called the islands the Indies, and went back to Spain with the news. Later on he made another voyage and landed in America, and found that instead of reaching India he had discovered a huge new continent of which he had never dreamt. So the islands he had first found were renamed the West Indies, to distinguish them from the real Indies in the East. Columbus made several other voyages, in

PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH DISCOVERIES 13

the course of which he landed in Jamaica, and Trinidad, and at different places on the coast of America. He died in 1506.

3. So to the Portuguese belongs the credit of having discovered South Africa, and of having reached India by sea, and to the Spaniards belongs the credit



MAP OF COLUMBUS'S VOYAGES

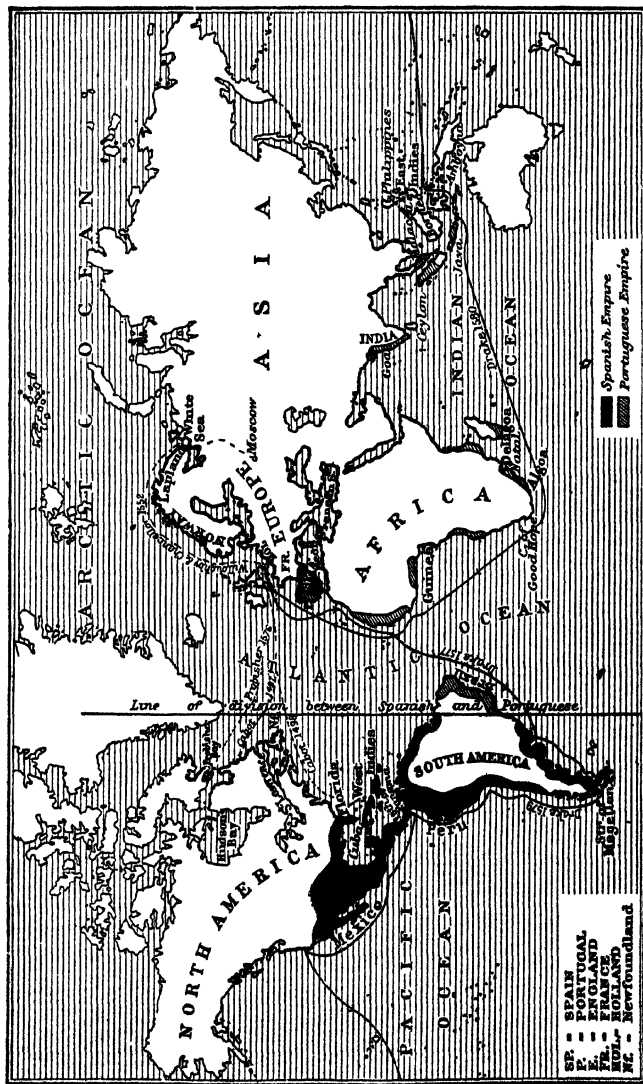
of having discovered America. After the news of the success of Bartholomew Diaz, Vasco da Gama, and Christopher Columbus had been spread about, many other Portuguese and Spaniards began to set forth on voyages of discovery and adventure. The later Portuguese explorers followed the example of Columbus, and instead of sailing along the coast of Africa struck boldly across the Atlantic. In 1500 they visited Brazil,

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and in the next year Corte Real sailed all the way along the eastern coast of North America; while in 1520, Magellan and his companions actually sailed round the world. They followed down the eastern coast of South America, passed through the Straits of Magellan at the southernmost point, which they named after their captain, crossed the Pacific to the East Indian Islands, like Borneo and the Philippines, where Magellan was killed in a fight with the natives, and from there the expedition sailed across the Indian Ocean to the Cape, and so reached Portugal again up the west coast of Africa. The voyage took nearly three years, and when we remember the tiny ships they sailed in, and that they had no maps to guide them and show them when they were near rocks or currents, or where they could find ports to get fresh food and water, we may well think it was one of the most wonderful adventures in the history of the world. The fame of this adventure belongs to both Spain and Portugal, for though Magellan was a Portuguese, it was the Spanish king who gave him the ships and money for the expedition.

4. The Portuguese went on exploring and looking for new lands to trade with all through the sixteenth century, until at the end they had many valuable possessions. The chief of these were Brazil in South America, Goa in India, Malacca in the East Indies, and some settlements along the east coast of Africa. Portugal valued these possessions mostly because of her enormous trade with them. She was too small a country to try to conquer them, and govern the people who lived in them. So she made them trading stations, and her Empire was really a great trading Empire.

THE WORLD AT THE END OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY



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16 THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

5. Many Spaniards, too, set out on voyages of discovery, mainly westwards. Florida was found in 1509, and Cuba in 1511. The Pacific Ocean was seen by white men for the first time in 1513, when Balboa crossed the narrow isthmus that separates North and South America, and walking into the water up to his waist, in full armour, "took possession of that ocean in the name of the king, his master, and vowed to defend it with these arms against all enemies." Once the Spaniards had set foot on the mainland it was not long before they seized a great part of it. A few years later the great country of Mexico to the north of the isthmus was conquered by Cortes, and in 1533 Pizarro invaded and took possession of Peru, on the western side of South America, to the south. So by the middle of the fifteenth century Spain, as well as Portugal, had won a great empire in the New World. Her chief possessions were the West Indies, Peru in South America, and Mexico in Central America. Spain was a powerful kingdom, and so, unlike Portugal, she conquered these countries thoroughly, and gave them a very strict government. The Spanish Governors then laid heavy taxes on them, and sent great ships full of treasure back to Spain.

6. So we see that as the outcome of the early explorations two great empires had been built up. Spain had founded a strong military empire in the West, and Portugal a great trading empire mainly in the East. But, as we saw, both Spain and Portugal discovered Brazil in the same year, and they soon began to dispute about which was to have it, so they asked the Pope to decide between them.

The Pope drew a line down the map through the Atlantic, which you will see in the map on p. 13, and gave the Portuguese all the land east of that line, along the coast of Africa and towards India, and to the Spaniards he gave all the lands and islands to the west of that line. Later on the line was moved a little so that Brazil was added to the Portuguese Empire, and in the end became the most important part of it.

CHAPTER IV

ENGLAND AND THE NEW WORLD

“‘Not unto us,’
Cried Drake, ‘not unto us—but unto Him
Who made the sea, belongs our England now’
Praise God that heart and mind and soul we prove
Worthy among the nations of this hour
And this great victory, whose ocean fame
Shall wash the world with thunder till that day
When there is no more sea, and the strong cliffs
Pass like a smoke, and the last peal of it
Sounds thro’ the trumpet’”¹ —ALFRED NOYES, *Drake*

1. THE northern peoples of Europe were slower than the Spaniards and the Portuguese in beginning to explore, for they had had no share in the Mediterranean trade, and so were less affected when the trade routes to the East were closed by the Turks. But the news of the exciting adventures and the rich discoveries of the explorers soon spread over Europe, and the other nations began to long to share in them. The first to follow the example of the Spaniards and the Portuguese were the English, and once they started, they quickly took

¹ By kind permission of Messrs. William Blackwood and Sons.

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a leading place, for they had several advantages in the struggle for the lands and trade of the New World.

2. If a country is to be great and to play a useful part in the world, it must first make sure that it is safe at home. There is no use in starting enterprises across the sea, if you leave the door open for your enemy to attack and rob you at home. While Portugal, and Spain, and France, and Holland were trying to win lands in the New World, they had also to defend miles and miles of their own boundaries in the Old World, to prevent their next-door neighbours from stepping over them. But England was saved from all this; her boundary was the sea, and she knew that no foreign foes could step across it, unless they were strong enough to build a bigger fleet than her own and win command of the sea. As Shakespeare says—

“ . . . England hedged in with the main,
That water-walled bulwark, still secure
And confident from foreign purposes.”

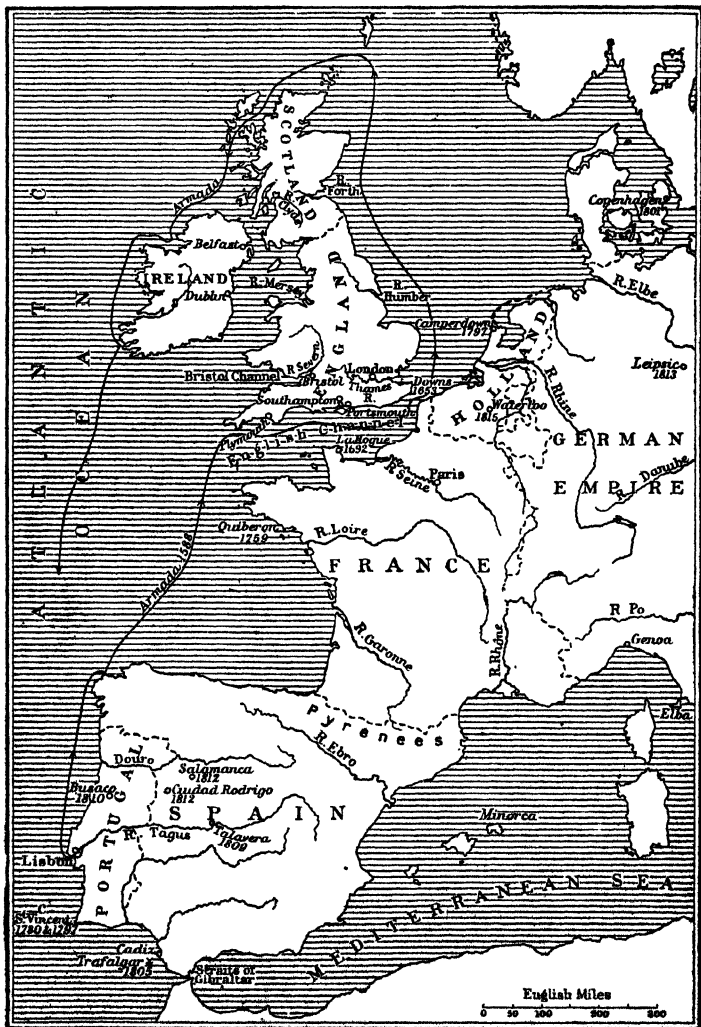
3. The sea is a good boundary in another way; for besides being a strong wall to keep out enemies, it is the great open road which leads all round the world and joins all countries to one another. No country can be really great if it is shut up quite by itself. Its people must be able to communicate with other peoples, to learn from them and to trade with them. That is why every great country must have good rivers and seaports, for they are the avenues and gates opening on to the highways of the sea. England is very rich in rivers and seaports. She has first of all the Thames, leading right into the heart of the south country; then comes the Bristol Channel and the

• Severn, which open up the south-west ; and there are many smaller entries, like the Humber and the Mersey, which serve the north of England. In Scotland the Firths of Forth and Clyde act as great entries from East and West. Besides these great river roadways, there are many fine harbours, like Southampton and Plymouth, all round the British coast, so that when the English began to think of exploration, they found that the road to the New World started from their very doors.

4. Then England had an advantage in her climate. A very hot climate affects a people's habits and character, and makes them lazy and disinclined to move or start on great enterprises ; and, on the other hand, in very cold countries, people have to spend a great deal of the year indoors, when the earth and the rivers and lakes are frozen hard. The climate of England, however, is neither very hot nor very cold. It is one of the most temperate in the world. It is never too hot in the summer, and the ground and lakes are seldom frozen for more than a few days in the winter. So the English people became strong and hardy in the cool, damp atmosphere of their islands, and were energetic, because they were never forced to stop work during any part of the year.

5. Then they had another advantage. The seas round the British Isles are shallow waters full of valuable fish, and a great many of the people who lived along the coast spent their lives in fishing. They were therefore accustomed to sailing across the seas, and were ready to join in the voyages to the New World as soon as it had been discovered. The English fisher-

ENGLAND AND WESTERN EUROPE AT THE END OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY



GEORGE PHILIPS SELL

Longmans, Green & Co. London, New York, Bombay & Calcutta

men, too, were of the greatest value in manning the English navy; for as a writer of those days, called Hakluyt, says, they were "able to enforce themselves into the rigour of the stern and uncouth northern seas, and to make trial of the swelling waves and boisterous winds which there commonly do surge and blow."

6. So you see what great advantages England derived from being an island. Her people were used to the sea, and had learnt to understand and to love it; they were hardy, independent, and daring; they knew how to build good ships, and how to sail them in the roughest seas; and so in time they became the greatest sailors in the world. All these advantages led to another and still greater advantage. The unfortunate peoples of the continent of Europe were continually harried by the armies of kings and feudal barons, and had to devote all their energies to protecting themselves from armed attack. But the sea and their ships protected the English from just such dangers, and they were able to turn their attention to devising a better and a freer system of government than any which had existed before. The English were the first to invent trial by jury, and government by a parliament. Trial by jury meant that all the subjects of the English king were fairly and justly treated in the courts of law; they were certain to be punished if they had done wrong, and were equally sure of protection if nobles and other powerful men tried to ill-use them. Government by parliament meant that the king had to give up taxing his subjects as he liked, and to govern the country in accordance with the will of the people. Parliament has steadily grown more and more powerful, until to-day it

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governs the country directly itself. When you remember that in these days the people in other lands were heavily taxed by kings, and were tyrannised over by nobles, and often could not obtain protection and justice in the courts of law, because the judges were harsh and cruel, you will see how fortunate the English were in being left free to devise a good system of government for themselves. This system of government, which allows all British subjects to lead free, safe, and peaceful lives, has been transplanted all over the Empire. As we shall see, most of the great wars of the Empire have been fought to save it from being upset by foreign kings and armies.

7. But though England was an island it was not cut off from Europe, which was the centre of knowledge and learning. The English Channel was a barrier to the armies of England's enemies; but it was not a barrier to trade or books, or wise men. Moreover, in those days the great rivers like the Seine and the Rhine were the chief trade routes, and these all pointed in the direction of England. So that while the English were more free and independent than any other people, they were able to learn all about what was going on in other countries, and were therefore ready to take their part in making further discoveries in the New World when the opportunity to do so arose. And as we shall see later, the exploration of the New World changed the whole position of England. Before the discovery of America she was a little island on the edge of civilised Europe, but afterwards, as the map at the beginning shows, she occupied a central position in the world.

CHAPTER V

THE ENGLISH EXPLORERS AND THE WAR
WITH SPAIN¹.

1. THE sixteenth century has been called the period of Training, because, during it, the English began to leave their own islands and take to a seafaring life, and so to prepare themselves for the struggles later on, out of which the British Empire was to grow. During this time, as we have seen, they explored the world and came to know their way about it; they found out what other peoples and countries were like; and still more important, they became clever sailors, and learnt to manage their ships both in peace and war.

2. Let us see how the early English adventurers fared. The Portuguese had already gained a big start in India, Africa, and South America, and the Spaniards had sailed west and discovered the West Indies and Central America, so the English naturally turned to the northern seas. The first explorer to start from England was John Cabot. He was a Genoese, but he came to England, and King Henry VII. gave him leave to arrange an English expedition, and to take possession of any unknown lands he might discover. In 1497 he set out from Bristol, and sailed due west across the Atlantic till he discovered Newfoundland and the coast of North America. For this discovery the King gave him a reward of £10. In Henry VII.'s

¹ See maps on pp. 15 and 20.

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account-book is written: "To hym that found the New Isle, £10." Newfoundland has been famous ever since for the fisheries on the banks which lie off her coast.

3. After this the English sailors, hearing of the riches of the Indian trade, thought that they might be able to find yet another way to India by sailing round the north of Europe, or even round the north of the new continent of America. So in 1553 an expedition set out under Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor, and sailed up the coast of Norway, little knowing what a rough and icy sea they would find. Before they had gone very far a great storm overtook them, and Willoughby and two of his ships were separated from the rest, and long afterwards they were found off the coast of Lapland with their crews all frozen to death. Chancellor managed to sail round the north of Norway into the White Sea, but then he saw that he could get no farther. So there he landed and travelled all through Russia, as far as Moscow, where he visited the Czar. This journey paved the way for English trade with Russia.

4. The next attempt was made in 1576 by a man called Frobisher, who sailed in the opposite direction, and thought he could find a way round the north of America; but though he sailed farther than any one else had been, he did not get very far on the road to India, as you can see by the bay that is called after him. Other people afterwards also tried to discover a sea-road to India by what is known as the Northwest Passage; but it was soon found to be impossible, for during half the year the seas were frozen,



THE SPANISH ARMADA IN THE ENGLISH CHANNEL

(Reduced from Longmans' Historical Wall Pictures by Henry J. Ford)

while during the other half they were filled with dangerous icebergs.

5. When the English found that there was little



SIR MARTIN FROBISHER, DIED 1594

(From a picture belonging to the Earl of Carlisle)

profit to be made out of voyages to these cold and desolate regions, they began to sail in the warmer seas to the south. But there they came across Spanish

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ships, and soon a sort of private war sprang up between the sailors of the two countries. At that time the English quarrelled with the Spaniards, both because of their religion (for Spain was Catholic and England had just turned Protestant), and because they wanted a share in the trade with the New World. The Spanish colonies were very rich in gold and silver, but the Spaniards would allow no one but their own people even to land in them. The English objected to this policy of exclusion, and in trying to trade with America and the West Indies came into conflict with the Spaniards. They fought with such success that soon the name of the English sailors became a terror to the Spanish merchants. The Sea-dogs, as the English called themselves, roamed about the sea, and whenever one of the huge, clumsy Spanish treasure-ships hove in sight they used to cram all sail on their own vessels and overtake her. Then, after a struggle, they would plunder the Spanish ship and carry its treasure back to England. Before very long great numbers of Sea-dogs were busily engaged in these piratical exploits.

6. But after a time the Spanish king became annoyed at the growing power of the English, and their refusal to admit his claim to exclude them from trading with America. He was also opposed to them because of their conversion to Protestantism, so he determined to destroy them. He built a great fleet of which he was so proud that he called it the Invincible Armada, and sent it out, in 1588, to conquer England and destroy her sailors and fleet. The English were greatly alarmed, because Spain was then the strongest

power in Europe. But they collected all their ships and put them under their most famous sea-captains. Lord Howard was in command, and with him were Frobisher, Hawkins, Drake, and Raleigh, of



HAWKINS, DRAKE, AND CAVENDISH

whose exploits we shall hear more later on. The English ships were much smaller than the Spanish ships, and carried fewer guns and men, but they were swifter and more easy to stop or turn. The English, therefore, determined to avoid a regular battle, but to dash in

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among the enemy's fleet as often as a good opportunity occurred and disable their ships one by one. When the Armada was first sighted coming up from the south there was a strong wind blowing up the Channel, so they let it go by, and then harassed it from behind. Whenever the Spaniards tried to turn their vessels round to resist the attack they were driven back by the wind, while the English ships could charge down as often as they liked. At last, when the ships of the Armada were all in confusion, the real battle took place, and the Spaniards were badly beaten. Then they tried to sail away, but a mighty gale sprang up and completed the victory the English had begun. The Spanish ships were driven round the north of Scotland, but one after the other they were dashed to pieces on the shore. Of all the 120 vessels of King Philip's Invincible Armada, only 54 shattered wrecks reached home to tell the tale.

7. This victory marks a very important stage in the growth of the Empire. Up to this time Spain had been the great colonising power, and, though the English Sea-dogs had captured some treasure-ships, the Spanish navy had always been supposed to be invincible. But the defeat of the Armada proved that a new people had arisen to a position of influence on the seas and in the New World. It also marked the failure of the first of the many attempts on the part of European kings to destroy the freedom of England and the English. It marked, too, the beginning of England's sea-power, and, as we shall learn later on, it has been sea-power which has enabled England to win and hold her Empire.

CHAPTER VI

THE SEA-DOGS¹

1. LET us now find out some more about the exploits of the Sea-dogs. One of the most daring was a man called John Hawkins, who made himself famous in a horrible way, for he was the first of the English to begin what is called the slave-trade. In one of his voyages to the Spanish colonies he found out that "negroes were very good merchandise in Hispaniolá² (one of the West Indian Islands), and that they might easily be had off the coast of Guinea." They were used as labourers on the sugar plantations in the West Indies, and the planters, who could get no one else to do the work, used to pay high prices for them. Hawkins collected several ships, and filled them with negroes whom he seized on the west coast of Africa, and then he took them across the Atlantic and sold them in the Spanish colonies. People in those days were not so civilised as we are now, and they did not stop to think how cruel and wicked it was to tear all these poor negroes away from their homes and sell them into slavery. The Spaniards had long practised this trade and were anxious to keep it to themselves, and did not want the English to come near their colonies at all. So they used to attack the English slave-ships whenever they could find them, and the English captains

¹ See map on p. 15 for Drake's voyage.

² Now known as Haiti.

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had to smuggle their slaves ashore as best they could. Hawkins himself managed to smuggle a great many slaves, and made himself very rich. But at last he was caught by a strong Spanish fleet, and though he escaped with his life, he lost all his ships and nearly all his riches.

2. One of his companions, who also escaped from this battle, was Francis Drake, the most famous of all the sailors of that time. We are told that he was "of low stature, but set and strong grown," and he was so bold that nothing could daunt him. His whole life was spent in fighting the Spaniards and in plundering their treasure-ships, so that they came to fear the very sound of his name. But the deed which made him most famous was his voyage round the world. In one of his earlier expeditions to the Isthmus of Panama, the long strip of land which joins North and South America, the natives had shown him the Pacific Ocean, and he prayed "Almighty God to give him life and leave to sail once in an English ship on that sea." So four years later, in 1577, he collected a little fleet of five ships, the biggest of which, called the *Pelican*, was a vessel of only 100 tons, and set sail across the Atlantic. Nowadays we are used to great liners of more than 30,000 tons, with every sort of luxury and comfort on board, and we may well wonder at the courage of those early sailors who ventured off like this to brave the storms and dangers of unknown seas.

3. Drake made straight for the Pacific, the new ocean on which no Englishman had ever sailed before. To get there he had to follow the east coast of South



DRAKE CAPTURES A SPANISH TREASURE SHIP

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America till he came to the Straits of Magellan; and here a fearful storm arose and separated his little fleet, so that when he reached the Pacific at the farther end he found himself alone. But, nothing daunted, he sailed up the western side of South America, and he soon came into conflict with his old enemies, the Spaniards, once more. As we have already learnt, they had long before discovered these coasts by crossing the Isthmus of Panama, and had begun a rich trade with them. But they never dreamt that any one would attack them from the Pacific side, and when Drake arrived he found them quite unprepared, and was able to carry off as much treasure as the *Pelican* would hold. In one place he found three vessels whose crews were all on shore, so he helped himself to fifty-seven blocks of silver, as big as bricks, which he found on board. Another time he heard that a great treasure-ship had just started on her homeward journey, so he quickly started in pursuit. Soon the great vessel was sighted, but Drake was afraid that her captain would see that the *Pelican* was chasing her and would keep out of her way, so he planned a trick to deceive him. He tied a lot of empty jars on to a rope, and trailed them behind him in the sea. This made the *Pelican* go so slowly that the Spanish captain thought she was just some native boat, and came quite close up to look at her. Suddenly he was startled by a great burst of firing, which damaged his ship so much that he had to surrender, and Drake was able to carry off the jewels and gold and other treasures which she contained.

4. Before very long Drake's name became a terror to the Spaniards. So frightened of him were they that

they used to call him "*El Drague*"—"the Dragon." But after some years of this roving life up and down the Pacific coast of America, Drake began to think of going home. At first he tried to sail round the north of America, but when he had gone a very long way up the coast and discovered British Columbia, which is the westernmost province of Canada to-day, and still could find no passage, he changed his mind, and sailed right across the Pacific instead. To reach England in this way he had to go past the East Indies, across the Indian Ocean, and right round the foot of South Africa, and then sail northwards through the Atlantic to the English Channel. But in the end he accomplished this great journey, and when at last he reached Plymouth, at the end of three years, he could proudly say that he was the first English captain who had sailed all round the world. Every one was full of his wonderful adventures, and Queen Elizabeth herself went down to Plymouth and made him a knight on the deck of the brave little *Pelican*.

5. If you want to hear more about the exploits of this famous sea-dog you must read them in another book. There you will find what a great part he took in the war with Spain; how he helped to defeat the Great Armada; how he "singd the King of Spain's beard" by boldly sailing into a Spanish port and sinking or burning thirty of his ships; and how he had many more such adventures, until at last he died, and was buried in the sea which all his life had been his home, so that an old poet wrote:

"The waves became his winding-sheet, the waters were his tomb,
But for his fame the ocean sea was not sufficient room."

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6. There is one other English sailor of those times whose name we must remember, and that is Sir Richard Grenville. During one of the battles with the Spaniards his little ship, the *Revenge*, was cut off from the rest of the English fleet, but, rather than give in or escape, he tried to force his way through the whole Spanish fleet. For fifteen hours he fought—one against fifty-three. At last, when he was mortally wounded, and there were hardly twenty men left alive, the *Revenge* gave in. His last words were: "Here die I, Richard Grenville, with a joyful and quiet mind, for that I have ended my life as a good soldier ought to do who has fought for his country and his queen, his honour and his religion."

CHAPTER VII

RESULTS OF THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

1. THE exploits of the Sea-dogs and the struggle with Spain, ending in the defeat of the Armada, were the main achievements of the English during the sixteenth century. But they were not the only ones. Towards the end of the century a number of attempts were made to copy the example of Spain, and to found colonies of Englishmen in Newfoundland and in Virginia on the eastern coast of America. But these early settlements really belong to the next period, and we shall learn about them in the next chapter. Before we go on we must find out what the French

and the Dutch have been doing, and sum up the general results of the period of training.

2. About the same time as the English, the French began to think of following the example of Portugal and Spain in exploring the New World. In 1524 a man named Verruzano sailed all the way along the Atlantic coast of North America, from Florida to Newfoundland, and claimed it for the King of France. A far more important expedition was made in 1534, when Jacques Cartier, a Frenchman, sailed up the St. Lawrence River, and called all the country about it by the name of New France. This was the beginning of French power in Canada, and we shall hear a great deal more of it later on.

3. After the English and the French, another northern people, the Dutch, began to wander out over the seas. But by this time most of the world had been explored, so we do not hear of many great discoverers from Holland. The most important was Hudson, who tried to find a new route to India by the North-west Passage round America, but got no farther than Hudson's Bay. He also sailed up the river on which New York now stands, and which is still called after him. But although the Dutch were not famous discoverers, they became the greatest traders of that time. Like the Portuguese, they were more anxious to trade with the New World than to conquer it. They built a very large number of trading vessels, and were so active and daring that in the end they very nearly drove the Portuguese out of the East.

4. We have now come to the end of the sixteenth century, the first period in the history of the Empire,

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and can look back and see what has happened. A hundred and thirty years before, all that the people of Europe knew of the earth was Europe itself, a little of North Africa, and the south-west of Asia. The rest of the world was unknown, and travel was so dangerous and difficult that people seldom ventured far afield. Then the closing of the great trade-routes to the East, inventions like the compass, the discovery that the earth was round, and the new birth of thought and learning, brought about a change. Men seemed suddenly to wake up, and seafarers of many nations set about exploring the unknown world. The Portuguese led the way by discovering the new road to India round the south of Africa, and by 1600 had built up a great trade with India and the East, and had founded an empire for themselves in Brazil. The Spaniards followed their example, and by the same date, 1600, they had conquered rich possessions in the West Indies and in Central and South America, from which they gained great wealth. Then came the English. They had not yet become great traders, and by 1600 they had won no lands beyond the sea, though they had tried to make some settlements in America. But they had devoted their attention to their shipping, and had already become the leading sea-power in the world. The French had explored the St. Lawrence River, and had tried to found a settlement there. And the Dutch were beginning to build up a great trade with the Far East.

5. So at the end of the first period two great changes had come about. In the first place, almost the whole world had been mapped; and the white peoples of Europe, instead of being afraid to venture away from their homes, were gradually spreading over

the new lands. In the second place, out of the islands and continents that had been discovered, two great empires had been founded—the trade Empire of the Portuguese, and the military Empire of the Spaniards. For most of the century the foremost position of Spain and Portugal was unchallenged. But at the end new peoples had risen up and had begun to prepare themselves to struggle for trade and influence and power in the New World: and the chief of these were the English.

6. The sixteenth century has been called the period of training, because during it England began to make herself fit for the task of building up the Empire. Let us see what preparations she had made. In the first place, as we have seen, she had devised a good system of government, and banished from her own lands the tyranny and oppression which did so much harm to her neighbours. Under this good system of government her people grew rich, and strong, and independent. In the second place, her sailors and merchants had learnt thoroughly about the New World and the way to reach it. They had found their way to the new countries, and discovered what the inhabitants and climate were like, and what riches and merchandise they contained. They had grown into bold and daring sailors, able to handle their ships in good weather and bad, and to fight by sea as well as on land. As we go on we shall see what tremendous advantages these were. The growth of political liberty in England meant that her children took their ideals of government with them out into the New World and planted them so that they grew and flourished there. The development of seapower meant that England was able to keep her posses-

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sions and keep open the sea-roads which led to them against the attacks of the great autocratic Kingdoms and Empires of Europe. The other great powers, however, also learnt just this second lesson. Spain, Portugal, Holland, and France each in turn found that if they were to dominate the New World they must be strong by sea. So one after the other they came into conflict with the sea-power of England. That is why this period of training is so important, for during it the English gained the experience which enabled them in the end, after many struggles, to defeat all enemies, and so not only make possible the British Empire, but the triumph of British ideals of freedom in the New World instead of the autocratic ideas of Europe.

In this period the important names and dates are as follows:—

Discovery of compass.

- 1453. Capture of Constantinople by Ottoman Turks.
- 1394-1460. Prince Henry of Portugal, the Navigator.
- 1486. Bartolomeo Diaz sails round the Cape of Good Hope.
- 1492. Columbus discovers America.
- 1497. Vasco da Gama reaches India round the Cape.
- 1497. Cabot leads the first English Expedition to America.
- 1513. Discovery of the Pacific by Balboa.
- 1519-22. Magellan sails round the world.
- 1521. Conquest of Mexico by Cortes.
- 1533. Conquest of Peru by Pizarro.
- 1534. Voyage of Cartier to Canada.
- 1553. Expedition of Sir Hugh Willoughby to the White Sea.
- 1576. Frobisher's attempt to find a North-west Passage.
- 1577-80. Drake's voyage round the world.
- 1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert attempts first settlement in Newfoundland.
- 1585. Sir Walter Raleigh tries to found first English colony in Virginia.
- 1588. Defeat of the Spanish Armada and beginning of English sea-power.

PART II

PERIOD OF COLONISATION BY SETTLEMENT SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

CHAPTER VIII

ENGLAND'S FIRST COLONIES

“Green fields of England ! Wheresoe’er
Across this watery waste we fare,
Your image at our hearts we bear,
Green fields of England, everywhere.”

—A. HUGH CLOUGH.

1. WE come now to the second period in the history of the Empire, the seventeenth century, and at the beginning of it a new kind of explorer comes upon the scene. The first explorers had been men like Willoughby and Frobisher, who set out to discover new lands and new roads to old lands, and like the Sea-dogs, who roved the sea, making themselves rich by plundering the Spanish enemies of England. And now a second set appear, men who wanted to make England really great and strong, and who saw that there were better ways of doing this than merely by attacking the Spaniards and spoiling their trade and seizing their gold. They saw that the proper way was to found colonies in the New World where Englishmen would settle and make their homes, and which would

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become in time new centres of freedom and great centres of trade. The first and most famous of the men to make this attempt were Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh. Neither of them lived to see their plans succeed, but we may still call Gilbert and Raleigh the founders of the Empire across the seas, because they were the first to think of spreading the power of England by planting colonies in different parts of the world, and because British colonies afterwards grew up in the very places they had chosen.

2. Sir Humphrey Gilbert made the first attempt to found a colony, and the place he chose was the nearest land he could find in the New World, the island of Newfoundland, which had been discovered nearly a hundred years before by John Cabot. This island claims to be the oldest British colony, but, though English people went out there very early on account of the fishing trade, it did not become part of the British Empire until long afterwards. Sir Humphrey Gilbert founded his colony in 1583, but it did not succeed; the climate was cold and wet, and it was difficult to make a living, and so he and his settlers had to leave the island. But he never reached his home, for as he sailed across the Atlantic he was caught in a great storm. He had chosen the smallest boat for himself, a tiny vessel of ten tons, called the *Squirrel*, and would not go in a bigger one. He was not at all afraid, even in the height of the tempest, but called out to his friends in another ship, "We are as near heaven by sea as by land." A few minutes later his little boat was swallowed up by the waves, and all on board were drowned.

3. More famous still was his half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh. He was one of the greatest men of that time, and was a special friend of Queen Elizabeth, who liked him for his good looks and his cleverness as well as for his fearless daring. He loved adventure, and all his life, whenever danger threatened and blows had to be struck by land or sea, he was sure to be in the thick of



SIR WALTER RALEIGH

it. Besides this, he was a learned man and a poet; but the dearest wish of his heart was to spread the power and fame of England, by founding colonies in the New World. He made many voyages across the Atlantic, and you have probably heard how he brought tobacco and potatoes from America to England for the first time. In 1584 the Queen gave him permission to take any heathen lands he might discover, and to found

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a colony at a place on the coast of America, which he called Virginia, after Queen Elizabeth. But for one reason or another the colony did not flourish. Some of the colonists were killed by natives, some disappeared and were never heard of any more, and at length the remainder were rescued and brought home by Drake. But Raleigh did not give up the idea of winning lands in the New World for England, and a few years afterwards he set out on a voyage to South America, to look for a wonderful land full of silver and gold of which he had heard. As you may suppose, he never found it, though he went 400 miles up the Orinoco River in search of it.

4. Raleigh was a great enemy of Spanish domination, and over and over again we find him fighting against them. He was one of the admirals who commanded the ships which defeated the great Armada, and, when some years later Queen Elizabeth sent out a fleet to attack the Spaniards on their own shores, Raleigh sailed with them in his ship called the *Warspit*. They made for Cadiz, where they found the Spanish ships drawn up in a line across the harbour. Raleigh led the way amongst them, and laid the *Warspit* alongside of the two largest Spanish ships. After a desperate struggle, the Spaniards were utterly defeated and set fire to their own vessels, and all but two were burnt. Then the English landed and sacked the town.

5. When the Queen died Raleigh lost his high place in Court, and his enemies persuaded King James to put him into prison. Even then he could not be idle, and he set to work to write a "History of the World." After a time he begged King James to let

him go and look once more for his golden country, and the King, who wanted money, released him on condition he did not make war on the Spaniards, for England was then at peace with Spain. Unfortunately for Raleigh, the part of South America to which he sailed already belonged to the Spaniards, who naturally refused to allow their old enemy to land and search for riches. So instead of returning in triumph with his ships loaded with treasure, poor Raleigh had to tell the King that he had found no riches, and had been defeated after disobeying his orders, and had lost his son as well. James was so angry with him for breaking his command that he ordered his head to be cut off, which seems very cruel to us to-day. Raleigh, who had been so brave all his life, was not afraid to die. When he mounted the scaffold he asked to see the axe, and, feeling its edge, he said: "This is sharp medicine, but it is a sound cure for all diseases." Then he said his prayers, laid his head on the block, and quietly met his death.

6. So we see that the first attempt at founding settlements had been a failure. But the idea was not given up, for many different sorts of people believed in it. The English sailors and merchants wanted to share in the riches of the New World, and they soon found that in the long run the best way of growing rich was not to fight and rob the Spaniards, but to trade with colonies of Englishmen in the New World. Other people, again, were jealous of the power of Spain, and thought that by founding colonies they would put a "byt into the ancient enemy's mouth." Kings and statesmen, too, saw that colonies would spread the

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power of England over the world. Hakluyt, who lived in those days, helped to rouse the ambition of the English by his writings. In 1589 he said in his odd, old-fashioned language: "I conceive great hope that the time approacheth, and now is, that we of England may share and part stakes (if we will ourselves) both with the Spaniards and the Portingale (Portuguese), in part of America and other regions as yet undiscovered." We will see in the next chapter how these ideas bore fruit.

CHAPTER IX

THE AMERICAN COLONIES¹

1. **ALTHOUGH** the first attempts at colonising America were a failure, it was not very long before a successful settlement was made. Curiously enough it was founded in the very place which Sir Walter Raleigh had chosen. Though Raleigh was very much disappointed at his first failure, he was not discouraged, and wrote home a prophecy to Lord Burleigh, the Secretary of State, which in the end came true. He said, "I shall yet live to see it an English nation," and sure enough the new colony of Virginia was founded in 1607, eleven years before his head was cut off.

2. The colony was soon in trouble. It was an experiment, and there were few people bold enough to lead the way there, especially after the disappointments of the earlier settlement, and of Sir Humphrey Gilbert's expedition to Newfoundland. It was difficult to find labourers, and food and everything else

¹ See map on p. 71.

was scarce and expensive, because there were not enough people to do the work. "Nothing is to be expected thence but by labour," wrote the leader of the settlers. Then the founders of the colony tried to use force, and sent a great many homeless boys and girls, and even prisoners, out from England. Naturally such people did not make good settlers, and the colonists complained that they were "unruly gallants packed thither by their friends to escape ill destinies." But at last a way was found out of the difficulty, and a large number of negroes was brought in from Africa to do the work. These negroes have been one of the greatest troubles of America ever since; but they were found very useful at the time, and they were set to grow tobacco, for which that country is well suited. The tobacco plant grew so well, and there was such a good sale for it, that soon the very streets of their towns were sown with it. In fifteen years the number of colonists had grown to five thousand.

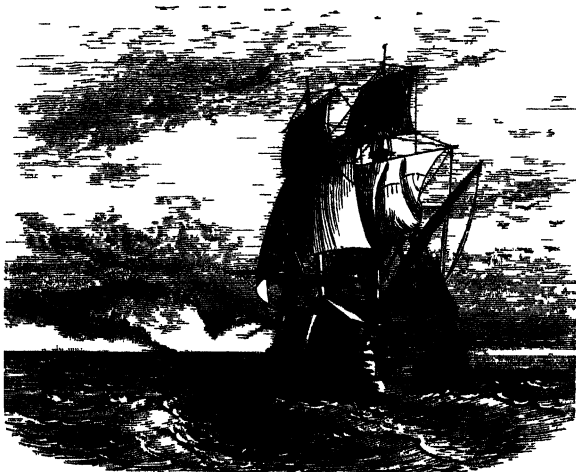
3. But in those days there was one great obstacle in the way of founding colonies successfully. The Government of England was too busy to help settlement, and it could do little more than give charters which allowed people to trade, or set up colonies in certain places. So that all the work of starting new colonies had to be done by private people. But private people found that though plenty of men were ready enough to go off for a year or two on a voyage of discovery, hoping to make a fortune at the end, they were not so anxious to leave their old homes for ever. They did not like the idea of taking their wives and families to a far-away, unknown country, where they might be

attacked by savages, where there were no towns or villages, or even houses or roads, and where at first it would be difficult to make a living. It is quite a different thing nowadays when people can read about a new country, and can even go and see it, and then come home if they can't find friends or don't get on. In those days it was a dangerous, lonely undertaking, and men and women would not go out as settlers to America unless they had some very strong reason to make them go.

4. Fortunately for the world, a very strong reason appeared at this very time. As you know from your English history, there was a great dispute going on in England between King James I. and the Puritans. The Puritans refused to conform to the official religion and wanted to be allowed to worship God in their own way. The King's party was the stronger, and the Puritans were persecuted for their religion, and a great many of them went to Holland to escape from their enemies. Then some of them made up their minds to go off to the New World, because they thought that there they would be able to practise their religion in peace.

5. In May 1620, the first band of a hundred and two set sail in a tiny ship called the *Mayflower*. Though the journey only takes five days now, it was six long months before the Pilgrim Fathers, as they were called, sighted land. Their leaders had meant to go to Virginia, but the *Mayflower* was driven ashore much farther north at Cape Cod, and there the Pilgrim Fathers landed and founded their colony. The shore was very bleak and cold, and the country covered with

forests, and the hard winter of those parts set in on them almost at once. For the first few years they had to suffer terrible hardships. The only people in the land were the wandering tribes of savage Indians. There was no one from whom they could buy what they wanted, so that, except for the few things they



THE "MAYFLOWER"

had been able to bring with them in their little ship, they had to make everything for themselves. And while they were ploughing and sowing, and building their houses and churches, and making their carts and furniture, they were never far from starvation, and often "they knew not at night where to have a bit in the morning."

6. Emigration in those days was no-easy task. But the Pilgrim Fathers were strong, brave men, and they

proudly boasted that "it was not with them as with other men whom small things can discourage or small discontentments cause to wish themselves at home again." And their friends in England wrote to encourage them: "Let it not be grievous unto you that you have been instrumental to break the ice for others. The honour shall be yours unto the world's end." So they struggled on until they began to prosper, and after a time the English colonies became the strongest and most powerful of all the colonies in America.

7. Once the news of their success reached England, other people began to follow their example. In this way a new colony called Massachusetts was founded in 1629, and in ten years nearly 20,000 people had settled there. Soon a whole group of settlements grew up all along the American coast, which came to be known as the New England Colonies. The most important of them were New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Maine. Nearly all the people who lived in them were Puritans who had left England to escape from persecution.

8. The Puritan settlements were not the only ones. People belonging to other religions, who were being persecuted in the same way as the Puritans, also migrated to America. In 1634 Lord Baltimore founded a colony for the Catholics, and called it Maryland after the wife of Charles I. In 1663 the colonies of North and South Carolina were formed farther south, partly for the sake of trade, and partly because of religious persecution. Later on, in 1681, Pennsylvania was founded by William Penn for the Quakers, and so well did it flourish that in twenty years its chief

town, Philadelphia, contained four thousand inhabitants.

9. Thus it was the Reformation and the spiritual activity which followed it which led to the founding of these colonies. It was the religious persecutions, and later the civil wars, which drove first one side and then the other to try its fortunes in the New World, and which thus overcame the great difficulty of persuading men and women to leave their homes to go out to a new country. By the end of the seventeenth century the English settlers spread all along the east coast of North America, till they met the French in the north and the Spaniards in the south. Of all the thirteen English colonies, there were only two which were not directly due to these causes—Virginia, which was founded before the Puritan persecution, and Georgia, which was not founded until 1733.

CHAPTER X

THE EXPANSION OF BRITISH TRADE¹

1. You must not suppose that all the efforts of the English during the seventeenth century were spent in the foundation of the American Colonies, or that England was left unmolested by her enemies. At the same time that the Puritans, the Catholics, and the Quakers were colonising new lands for England in America, other Englishmen were spreading her trade over the rest of the world. You will remember that

¹ See map facing p. 65.

at the end of the last period the English Sea-dogs were busy plundering the Spanish dominions, but in the beginning of the seventeenth century King James I. made peace with Spain, and the plunder of the Spanish galleys had to come to an end. Then the English sailors and merchants began to think of trading for themselves. At first traders fitted out ships of their own, and sent them out to bring back the riches and spices of India and other foreign countries. Then after a time all the people who traded with the same lands would join together and obtain a charter from the king, which gave them the control of all the trade with these lands, and forbade other Englishmen to interfere with them. So they became chartered companies, which had what was called a monopoly of trade. But wherever the English went in search of trade they either found the traders of other nations already on the spot or they were quickly followed by them. Neither side wanted to share their trade with the other, and so, as we shall see in the next chapter, it was not very long before quarrels arose.

2. We have seen how the Portuguese had built up their great trade empire, and how profitable it was to them. The Dutch people also had opened up a great trade with the East, particularly in the spices which were to be found in Java and other islands round about. The Portuguese and the Dutch together controlled this trade in spices, and the other European nations had to pay whatever these two peoples asked. Soon the English began to get tired of paying very heavily for the articles which were brought from India and other countries by Portuguese and Dutch ships, and they determined to fetch these things for

themselves. The result was the foundation of the East India Company, which was originally formed because the Portuguese and the Dutch made such great profits on the articles they brought to Europe that the English were not content to remain excluded from the trade of the East. So it was that in the year 1600



FORT WILLIAM

a number of London merchants met together, and obtained from Queen Elizabeth a charter allowing them to trade with India and the East "for the honour of our nation and the wealth of our people." The Dutch soon found it necessary to follow the example of the English, and two years later a Dutch East India Company was formed out of several small companies to protect the interests of the Dutch traders.

3. Now at first the English were particularly anxious

to gain a share in the spice trade, and they thought far more about the Spice Islands than about India. The Dutch, however, were firmly established in the Spice Islands, and the English found that they could not make head against their rivals. For a little more than twenty years they struggled on; but, as we shall see in the next chapter, they received a blow in 1623, when the Dutch seized some English merchants in Amboyna, and put them to death with cruel tortures on a false accusation. After this terrible tragedy the English began to leave the Spice Islands alone, and turned their attention more and more to the trade of India.

4. When the English merchants first landed at Surat, in 1608, the chief power in India was still the Mughal Empire. The Emperor Jahangir ruled all India north of the Godaveri River, and his dominions included besides Kashmir and Kabul. Before the English could trade in India, they had to get the permission of Jahangir: so Captain William Hawkins, who commanded the ship *Hector*, went from Surat to Agra to see him. Hawkins arrived in Agra in 1609, and was kindly treated by the Emperor, who gave the English permission to found a trading-station in Surat. But the Portuguese, who were jealous of the coming of the English, were able to persuade the Emperor to withdraw his permission, so that Hawkins had at last to go away without accomplishing his object. But very soon afterwards another English captain, Best, severely defeated some Portuguese ships which had tried to prevent him from entering the harbour of Surat. After this the Portuguese lost their reputation and the favour of the Emperor was

withdrawn, so that the English were able to establish their trading-station at Surat after all.

5. As the position of the English Company depended entirely upon the favour of Jahangir, their merchants in England determined to send an ambassador to the Emperor's Court. Accordingly an English gentleman of good family and high position, Sir Thomas Roe, was sent with letters from King James I. of England to the Emperor Jahangir, asking him to show favour to the English merchants residing in India. Roe came to the Emperor's Court at Ajmer, and remained with Jahangir for three years. Like Hawkins, he had to meet much opposition from greedy courtiers and jealous rivals. But he was patient, clever, and bold. Although he was not able to obtain a formal treaty between England and the Mughal Empire, yet he succeeded in gaining permission for English merchants to establish trading-stations at several places in the dominions of Jahangir.

6. He also gave the Company some very important and valuable advice as to how they ought to manage their affairs. He pointed out to them how the Portuguese and the Dutch were going wrong. The traders of these two nations kept large bodies of troops in their pay, and held their settlements by force. All over the East, the Portuguese and the Dutch had little forts, so that when the walls of these forts had to be repaired, and the troops had to be paid, much of the money which the merchants gained in their trade was spent, leaving little for them to grow rich upon. Roe warned the English against making this mistake. He told them that their business was to trade, not to fight. "Let this be received as a rule," he said; "if you will

profit, seek it at sea and in quiet trade." His advice was followed, and the English did not attempt to conquer any land, but just settled down as peaceable traders under the protection of the Emperor. Their "factory," as the trading-station at Surat was called, was quite different from the settlements of the Dutch and the Portuguese. The English merchants lived in a strong house and they kept a few soldiers to protect their valuable goods from robbers: but they made no attempt to conquer any territory; they only wished to trade.

7. As the years went on, the trade of the East India Company became great, and other "factories" besides that of Surat were founded. The opposition which the English met with from the Dutch in the Spice Islands actually helped them in India, for it made them push their Indian trade vigorously to make up for their losses elsewhere. On the Coromandel Coast, a little factory had been founded at Masulipatam by Captain Hippon in 1611; but the settlement was not satisfactory, because the Dutch molested it. In 1640 some land was purchased about 240 miles further south, and on it Fort St. George, which later became Madras, was built. The settlement of Fort St. George was rather different from the factory at Surat, because it was beyond the power of the Mughal Emperor. So as the English were not in this place under the protection of the Mughals, they had to look after themselves, and a regular fort, with guns and a garrison, grew up.

8. Not long before Fort St. George was built, the English merchants began to make their first ventures into Bengal and Orissa. They got permission from the Emperor Shah Jahan to trade in Bengal, and the first

little factory was established at Pipli in Orissa for the Bengal trade. But the Portuguese and the Dutch bitterly opposed the English, for the Bengal trade was the most valuable of all : and the English were not strong enough to do much until 1651. In that year they received permission to settle in Hugli. For a little time afterwards, things did not go well with the Company in Bengal ; but gradually their trade there increased until it became the most profitable part of their business in India.

CHAPTER XI

WAR WITH THE DUTCH

1. UNFORTUNATELY, not long after they began trading with India, the English came into conflict with the Dutch. In those days traders always wanted to keep the trade with a particular country in their own hands, and to prevent anybody else from taking any of it from them. At the very beginning of the century, while the Dutch and English East India Companies were still small, there was plenty of room for them both, especially as the Dutch were busy driving out the Portuguese who had enjoyed all the trade for a hundred years. But, by 1623, the struggle for trade had become so fierce that we find the English and Dutch coming to blows with each other for the first time. One of the most important of the Dutch trading stations was at Amboyna, an island in the East Indies, and the hatred of the Dutch for the English was so great that, finding they could get rid of them in no other way, they seized on the English merchants and put them to death because they had dared to trade in their ports. When the news of this

massacre reached England it naturally made the English very angry, but war did not break out at once, and both Dutch and English went on strengthening their positions. By the middle of the century the Dutch had almost driven the Portuguese out of the East ; they had taken Mauritius, Ceylon, and Malaçca, and set up trading stations all along the West African coast, in the Persian Gulf, and in Burma, and had sailed past Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand. But they were not satisfied to keep only to Eastern seas. In 1621 they founded a West India Company in the hopes of conquering Brazil from the Portuguese, and a year later they planted the colony of New Amsterdam on the river Hudson, where New York now stands.

2. But the Dutch and English each wanted the lion's share of the trade, and their merchants were competing against one another in every sea and every port. One people or the other had to take the second place, for even in the great New World that had been discovered they did not seem to think there could be room for two such daring and ambitious peoples to trade side by side in peace. It was the English who brought matters to a head in 1651. In that year they passed the Navigation Act, which declared that all goods coming into England must be carried in British ships, or in the ships of the country from which the goods came. This was a heavy blow to the Dutch, for at that time so much of the trade of the world was carried in their vessels that they were called the "Waggoners of the Seas"; and in the next year war broke out. The struggle lasted for twenty-two years, during which there were three

wars, the first from 1652 to 1654, when Cromwell was ruling England; the second from 1665 to 1667, and the third from 1672 to 1674, both during the reign of Charles II.

3. All the fighting in these wars was on the sea, and sometimes it was the Dutch and sometimes the English who won. Both sides had famous admirals; the Dutch were led by Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt, and the English by Blake and Monk. Many fierce battles were fought. These sea-battles were very different from those of to-day. Instead of fighting with huge iron-clads and torpedoes, and with guns which can sink a ship ten miles away, they had to use clumsy sailing vessels, and their one idea was to get quite close to the enemy's ships, so as to board them and seize them after a hand-to-hand fight. The admirals, too, were often just as good soldiers as they were sailors. Blake himself, one of the most famous of English seamen, fought in all Cromwell's wars on land, and had never been on board a man-of-war until he was fifty years old.

4. When the war first broke out the Dutch were the more successful. The English themselves said that the Dutch fleet was better managed than their own. "The Dutch do fight in very good order and we in none at all." But, though often defeated, the English would not give in. As De Witt said: "These men may be killed, but they will never be beaten." Thus, in 1652, Van Tromp surprised Blake off the Downs, and after a furious battle, claimed a victory and sailed up the Channel with a broom tied to his masthead, boasting that he had swept the English off the sea. But next year the English were ready to give battle again, and

Blake utterly defeated Van Tromp, and then, in his turn, sailed about with a whip-lash streaming from his mast, to show how he had whipped the Dutch. And so the wars dragged on, first one side winning and then the other. In 1666, the English destroyed the Dutch fleet off the coast of Holland, and in the next year the Dutch sailed up the Thames and burnt three of the English men-of-war. At the end of each of the wars, though neither side could claim a very decided victory, it was England who gained nearly all the advantages. After the first war the Dutch had to allow the British to share in the trade with India and the East, and in the trade with the Baltic as well, which they had claimed as their own monopoly. In the second war, they lost their colony of New Amsterdam in America, which the English renamed New York, after the Duke of York, who was King Charles' brother and a great admiral. And, at the very end of the struggle, Holland had to pay a large sum of money and acknowledge that England held the first place on the sea.

5. This war shows two things. First, it shows how England was helped by being an island. England was weaker than Holland when the struggle began, but she was guarded by her sea-walls, and was able to throw all her strength into the war without fearing an onslaught from behind. But Holland was not an island. If she put out all her force against the English, it meant that she was leaving an open door behind her through which her powerful enemies, the Spaniards and the French, could attack her. So she had by far the hardest task, and, bravely as she fought, in the long run she had to give in.

6. In the second place, the Dutch wars show the importance of sea-power. Once England had won command of the sea, not only was she safe from her enemies, she was also able to carry her trade to whatever part of the world she liked, and nobody could stop her. This was a tremendous advantage. While other nations were fighting with each other, and feared to send their merchants and ships on long expeditions to the East or the New World, because they might be attacked and captured on the way, the English were able to spread their trade in all quarters of the globe, without interference, and so grew rich and powerful. We shall see later on that, whenever her enemies wanted to injure her, they had first of all to build a navy of their own and destroy her fleet, because otherwise they were unable to do her any harm. So all the great wars of England, from the days nearly 250 years ago, when the Dutch were forced to give up the first place to her fleet, have always been fought to keep her supremacy by sea. For it is sea-power alone that protects England and the Empire from invasion, and which keep open the roads between all its different parts.

CHAPTER XII

SUMMARY OF THE SECOND PERIOD

1. WE have now come to the end of the second period in the history of the Empire. It is called the period of Colonisation by Settlement, because it is the time during which the English began to found colonies

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of settlers in the empty lands of the New World. Let us go back and see what has happened in the last hundred years.

2. In 1600 the English did not possess one mile of land outside the British Isles, for the two colonies they had tried to found in Virginia and in Newfoundland had both failed. But by 1700 the foundations of the British Empire had been laid all the world over. A long line of settlements had sprung up along the eastern shore of North America. Valuable trading stations had been gained in the West Indies, on the coast of Africa, and in India and the East Indian Islands. And, still more important, England had been engaged in a second great struggle for sea-power and had come out victorious. The first, in 1588, had been with the Spaniards. The second, from 1652 to 1674, was with the Dutch.

3. Now let us see what happened to the other powers. You remember that at the beginning of the period there were two great Empires—the land Empire of the Spanish and the trade Empire of the Portuguese. In 1700 Spain was still a great power, and still had broad possessions, but she had lost the first place, for the English held command of the sea and had taken Jamaica. Portugal had fallen still more sadly by 1700. She kept her Empire in Brazil and some lands on the coast of Africa, but she had been nearly driven out of the East, her own discovery, by the English and the Dutch. France and Holland, on the other hand, who, like England, had made hardly any mark in the New World in the beginning of the century, had come to the front in this last hundred

years. France had been busy spreading her settlements up the St. Lawrence, and founding new ones along the banks of the Mississippi. By 1700 she had taken possession of the provinces now known as Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Quebec in Canada, and of Louisiana in the south, and had laid claim to all the country at the back of the English colonies, from the Great Lakes of Canada to the mouth of the Mississippi. Holland had turned all her strength to trade, so that during the early part of the century she had the strongest navy and was the greatest trading power in the world. But there was such rivalry between the English and the Dutch that at last war broke out between them. In the end the English were victorious, won some of Holland's most valuable possessions, and gained command of the sea.

4. Let us have another look at the British possessions. We see that they were of two kinds. In the first place there were the settlements along the American coast. These were true colonies, for the people who lived in them were English settlers who had left their own country to make new homes over the sea, and the lands they chose were empty when they arrived, except for a few wandering tribes of Indians. The life of the settlers in these colonies was very like the life of people in England, for they took with them their religion, their language, their laws, and their system of government. So these colonies might truly be called England over the sea. At first they were small and thinly populated, but they grew steadily larger and more prosperous, especially after people began to stream out to them in order to escape

from religious persecution and civil wars at home. So gradually the Indians were driven farther and farther back, until finally the English settlers found themselves unable to extend farther along the coast to the north or south, because they were face to face with white settlers of another race, the French. And we shall see later on how they met the French again when they began to expand further inland towards the west.

5 The second kind of British possessions were the lands they had conquered, and the stations they had founded for the sake of trade. When the English arrived in places like India, or Jamaica, or the East Indian Islands, they found there already a large coloured population, and there was little or no room for many white people to settle down as farmers. Moreover, most of these countries were in the tropics, and were so hot that white people were unable to live and work, or bring up strong and healthy families in them. But gold, jewels, spices, foodstuffs, and other valuable things were to be bought cheaply from the natives, and could afterwards be sold for a high price in Europe. So a few white people—traders, and soldiers, and government officials—went to live in these countries, which were called dependencies. The dependencies, therefore, were not true colonies, but to begin with were possessions valued chiefly because of their trade.

6. So from the very beginning of the history of the Empire we notice two great features which have stood out ever since. One is the difference between the colonies, or dominions, the lands which are the homes of white men and women, and the dependencies, which

are the homes of black and brown people, and only governed by white people. The other is that from the moment England began to possess lands across the sea, she had to fight for sea-power. If England had not been able to win the command of the sea from the Dutch, she would probably have lost her trade with the East, and instead of gaining some of their most valuable lands, would have had to give up her own. As it was she held the sea roads, and could protect her colonies and strengthen her defences, so that she was ready for the next enemy who came to attack the Empire.

Important Names and Dates in the Second Period

- 1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert tries to found a colony in Newfoundland.
- 1585. Sir Walter Raleigh tries to found a colony in Virginia.
- 1600. The East India Company is established.
- 1602. The Dutch East India Company is established.
- 1607. Virginia successfully colonised.
- 1620. The Pilgrim Fathers sail in the *Mayflower* and found the New England Colonies.
- 1623. Dutch massacre English traders at Amboyna.
- 1623. St. Kitts, "the Mother Colony" of the West Indies, founded.
- 1640. East India Company establishes a station at Madras.
- 1651. St. Helena is made a port of call on way to India.
- 1652-54. First Dutch War.
- 1655. Jamaica taken from Spain.
- 1661. East India Company founds a station at Bombay.
- 1663. Colonies of North and South Carolina founded in America.
- 1665-67. Second Dutch War.
- 1665. Dutch colony of New Amsterdam [New York] in America taken.
- 1672-74. Third Dutch War.
- 1681. Pennsylvania colonised in America.
- 1686. East India Company found a station at Calcutta.

PART III

PERIOD OF EXPANSION BY CONQUEST, EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

CHAPTER XIII

THE BEGINNING OF THE FIRST STRUGGLE WITH FRANCE¹

“This England never did nor never shall
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror ;
Come the three corners of the world in arms,
And we shall shock them : nought shall make us rue,
If England to itself do rest but true.”

—SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

1. WE have now come to a new and most important period in the history of the Empire, which we call the period of Expansion by Conquest. We have seen how England laid the foundation of her Empire by peaceful settlement ; we have seen, too, how she wrestled with Holland for the first place on the sea, and how in the end she won it. Now we shall have to learn how, during the eighteenth century, the Empire grew as the result of war, how for more than a hundred years England was engaged in a desperate struggle with a powerful neighbour, France ; and how what she fought

¹ See maps on pp. 71 and 93.

A historical map of the world, likely from the 18th or 19th century, showing the major continents and islands. The map is color-coded to represent different colonial powers or territories. The legend in the bottom right corner identifies the colors: English (white), French (light blue), Dutch (light green), Spanish (light red), and Portuguese (light yellow). The map includes labels for North America, South America, Africa, Europe, Asia, and Australia. It also shows various trade routes and specific locations like Mexico, Peru, Brazil, India, and China.

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for was the control of the New World and the preservation of her free system of government.

2. The new period begins in 1689. You remember from your English history how King James II. was driven from the throne by his subjects, and how William of Orange, the Stadtholder of Holland, was brought over to reign in England instead. After this the Dutch and English, who had previously been enemies, became friends. And it was lucky they did so, because it was not very long before they had to defend themselves against France. Louis XIV. was a very ambitious man. He was jealous of the independence of the Dutch, and he helped James II to try to recover power in England after the English had deposed him and asserted the supremacy of Parliament over the Crown. Further, he was not content with being the most powerful king in the Old World, but he wanted to make himself the most powerful king in the New World too. His ambitions threatened the liberty of his neighbours, so war broke out almost at once between France on the one hand, and England and Holland on the other. The struggle between England and France, which thus began in 1689, went on through one war after another, until the battle of Waterloo in 1815. Before beginning to learn about this war, let us stop and see what France had been doing up to this time in the New World.

3. You remember that Canada was discovered in 1534 by Jacques Cartier, who tried to found a colony there. This colony did not succeed any better than the first English one, and for seventy years afterwards the French left Canada alone. In 1604 a new settlement was made near the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, on the land

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along the Southern shore, which the French named Acadie.¹ But the true founder of French Canada was Champlain, because he firmly established the French in that country, so that he was called the Father of New France. It was he who built the Fort of Quebec on a magnificent rock overlooking the St. Lawrence, and created a settlement about it, and Quebec has been the capital of the French part of Canada ever since. He and his followers also explored the country far up the river and about the Great Lakes, and wherever they went they claimed the land for France. Champlain himself was always hoping to find a way to China across America; he little knew what miles and miles of land there were between him and the Pacific Ocean.

4. The whole of that part of North America was covered with forests, and threaded by countless rivers and lakes. The forests were full of wild animals whose fur could be sold for high prices in Europe, and the rivers and lakes were like roads up which the hunters could row in their canoes. So the French colonists soon became great hunters and skilled woodsmen, and spent most of their time exploring, or hunting and trading furs with the Indians. They sent out a great many missionaries too, and many of the Indians were converted and became Christians; but sometimes the French were attacked by the Indians, and then they had to fight for their lives.

5. After a time the French colonists came across other white men, the New England settlers to the south. As the French pushed south the English pushed north,

¹ Acadie is now the territory known as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

and neither side would give way. So all through the seventeenth century we see the two peoples growing more and more jealous of each other, and ready to fight and raid each other's lands. In 1613 Samuel Argall of Virginia sacked the French town of Port Royal in Acadie. A few years later the English took Quebec and conquered almost the whole of New France; but in 1632 a treaty was made between England and France, by which the conquests were restored, and after that there was peace for a time. Towards the end of the century, however, the English found that the French explorers had pushed their way far into the heart of America and were claiming all the land they discovered for their own. La Salle had even crossed from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi, and sailing down this mighty river to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, had called the country round about it Louisiana, after King Louis. This alarmed the New England settlers very much, because they saw that if the French were once allowed to take possession of the inland parts of America, they themselves would soon be shut in between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea.

6. It was just at this moment that William III. was made King of England, and that England and Holland went to war with France, as we have already seen. This first conflict between England and France falls into two parts, with a few years peace in between. The first war lasted from 1689 to 1697, and was inconclusive. During it there was fighting on both sides of the Atlantic. In America it left matters much as they were before, as first one side and then the other won

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battles. The English conquered Acadie and later on they lost it. The French, under their governor Frontenac, took the forts belonging to the Hudson Bay Company and then were driven out again. The most important battle took place in Europe when the English and Dutch defeated the French fleet at La Hogue in 1692. Although this battle did not immediately bring the war to a close, it was important, because it showed that the French attack on the English sea-power had failed, and that the English still held the command of the sea which they had won from the Dutch a few years before. We shall see how vital this was to be to England a few years later on. After this the war dragged on for several years, as the English were too strong by sea and the French too strong by land, for either side to be able thoroughly to defeat the other. But in 1697 the Treaty of Ryswick was made, which brought it to an end, by arranging that each side was to give back to the other all the conquests it had made.

CHAPTER XIV

THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION

1. BUT the Treaty of Ryswick was only a truce. Five years later another, and far fiercer, war began, which lasted from 1702 to 1713. This was called the War of the Spanish Succession. The King of Spain had died in 1700, and as he had no son, he left his throne to the grandson of the King of France.

At that time France and Spain were each so powerful, both in Europe and the New World, that England and Holland were extremely alarmed. England recognised that if France and Spain were united into a single great military State it would be powerful enough to seize her colonies and stop all her trade. Holland was still more afraid, for she knew that they would not be content with taking her colonies and trade, but would want to conquer her own country as well. So England and Holland joined together once more, and entered into an alliance with the princes of Germany to prevent the union of the crowns of France and Spain.

2. War broke out in 1702. Most of the fighting was done in Europe, where the great Duke of Marlborough won his splendid victories. The French had grown so powerful that they had come to believe they could never be beaten, until Marlborough proved that they were wrong. Again and again he defeated them. He never fought a battle which he did not win, nor besieged a fortress which he did not take, so that at last France had no more armies left. Unfortunately we have not room to tell you all about these great battles here. They belong to the history of Europe, but they are important to the Empire too, for they humbled the pride of King Louis and broke the power of France.

3. There were sea battles too in this war. In 1704 Sir George Rooke took Gibraltar, the great rock in the south of Spain, which stands out like a sentinel into the sea to guard the gateway to the Mediterranean. Gibraltar was badly fortified, and it soon had to give in to the fire of Rooke's guns. At first the people of Eng-

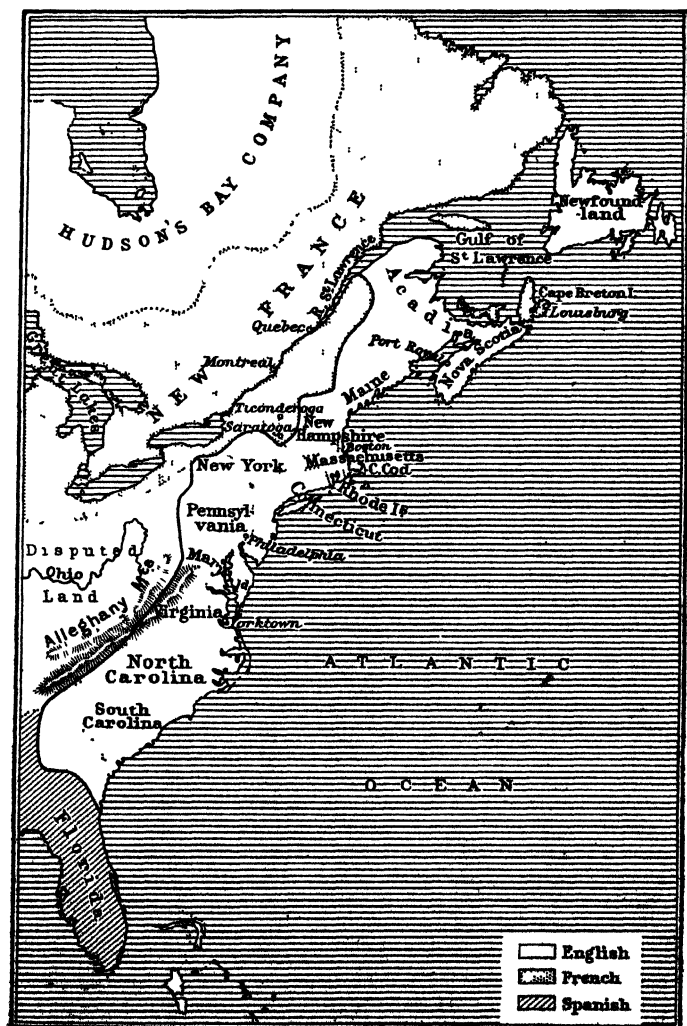
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land hardly understood the value of their capture, but gradually they came to see, as one of Rooke's admirals had said, that "it was the most advantageous conquest that could be made for the benefit of the trade as well as the fleet during war with France and Spain." It was indeed a great gain to the Empire; for when England won Gibraltar, she won the key to the Mediterranean, and her fleets could sail in and out as they liked, so that she became mistress of that inland sea as well as of the other oceans of the world. Four years later she took the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean, which became a very useful station for her fleet.

4. In the New World, too, there was fighting between the French and English. The English invaded the French settlements several times, and in 1710 the capital of Acadie was taken. A fleet was also sent out to conquer Canada, but some of the ships were wrecked in a storm, and the expedition came to nothing.

5. In 1713 the long war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Utrecht. France was exhausted, her fleet was destroyed, and all her armies had been defeated by Marlborough, so the treaty was very favourable to the English. In America England gained Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, which was the south-eastern corner of Canada, and the land round Hudson's Bay. In Europe, she kept Gibraltar and Minorca, which she had taken from Spain, and took the right to share in the Spanish slave-trade as well. This treaty put an end to the first struggle between France and England, which had only been interrupted for five years by the Treaty of Ryswick. The war had been brought on because the ambition of Louis XIV. threatened the freedom of both England

AMERICA AFTER THE TREATY OF UTRECHT, 1713

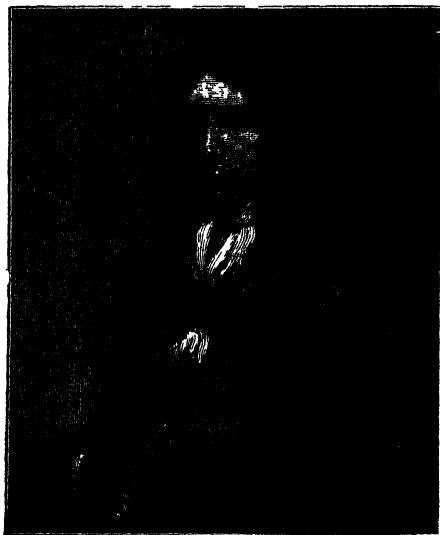


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and Holland, and at the end of the struggle France had been beaten, had lost some of her colonies in North America, and had been made to agree that the crowns of France and Spain should not be held by the same king. Spain had lost Gibraltar and Minorca. Holland, though she was on the winning side, was so worn out by the long



WILLIAM DAMPIER

struggle that she was never able to win back her former greatness. England, on the other hand, had gained the spoils. She had won new lands in America, she had taken strong stations for her navy like Gibraltar, and above all, she had proved more stoutly than ever her claim to the command of the sea. A great

naval writer says: "Before that time England was one of the sea-powers; after it she was *the* sea-power, without any second."

6. Before we go on to the second struggle between France and England in the eighteenth century, we must stop to notice two important events which had happened during the war. In 1700 the first Englishman, Dampier,

visited Australia. Long before, the Portuguese, the Spaniards, and the Dutch had caught sight of this unknown land; but Dampier was the first man who ever tried to explore it. But after he had landed the country seemed to him so sandy and waterless that he sailed away, and no one thought much more about it till Captain Cook explored it again eighty years later.

7. The other important event was the Union of England and Scotland in 1707. The crowns of the two countries had been joined ever since 1603, when King James of Scotland became King of England too, and called himself James I. It was at this time that we find the beginning of the Union Jack; for King James ordered the cross of St. Andrew to be added to the cross of St. George, and the new flag was called the Union Jack, in memory of the first king who reigned over both England and Scotland. For a hundred years after this, each country kept its own parliament, and it was not till 1707 that England and Scotland were really joined together so as to make one country. In that year the wise men of both countries met together and decided to form one parliament for Great Britain; for the Scots wished to share in the great empire of England and its trade, and the English wanted the help of the Scots in their foreign wars and in defending and colonising their possessions across the seas. So, after 1707, the kingdom of England became the kingdom of Great Britain, and the English Empire became the British Empire.

CHAPTER XV

SECOND STRUGGLE BETWEEN FRANCE AND
ENGLAND

"'Tis true that we are in great danger ;
The greater therefore should our courage be."

—SHAKESPLARE, *Henry V.*

1. Two years after the Treaty of Utrecht, Louis XIV., whose ambitions had brought on the last war, died, and his successor was anxious for peace. Spain, who could not forgive England for having taken Gibraltar, made one attempt to win it back ; but the other nations would not allow her to break the Treaty of Utrecht, and so her attempt failed. In 1739, however, the old quarrel broke out again. Spain forbade other nations to trade with her colonies. The British resented this and carried on a great smuggling trade with the Spanish colonies. Spain was determined to stop this smuggling, so she claimed the right to search all British ships on the high seas. If the English had let her do this, their trade with the West Indies would have been ruined, and, rather than give way, they went to war. But the Spanish war of 1739 was only the prelude to a new struggle between France and England, for the next year it grew into a much greater conflict, in which most of the other countries took part. This was called the War of the Austrian Succession, in which, once again, England and France found themselves on opposite sides. We shall see later how the struggle between

them spread all over the world, so that they were fighting, not only in Europe alone, but in America, on the high seas, and in far-off India as well. As in the previous struggle, the real question was whether France with its reactionary ideas and system of government, or England with its more liberal and democratic methods, was to be the predominant influence in the New World.

2. The war began in 1740 when France agreed to help Spain to win back Gibraltar and Minorca, and to attack the British colonies in America. England soon found that it was France, and not Spain, which was her most important enemy. This second struggle, like the previous one, fell into two halves. The first half, as in the earlier case, was indecisive, and was brought to an end in 1748 by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. This treaty was really only a truce, entered into because both sides were too exhausted to bring the war to a decisive close; so each side returned to the other the conquests it had made. Thus the real question of whether France or England was to be supreme in the New World was left unsettled.

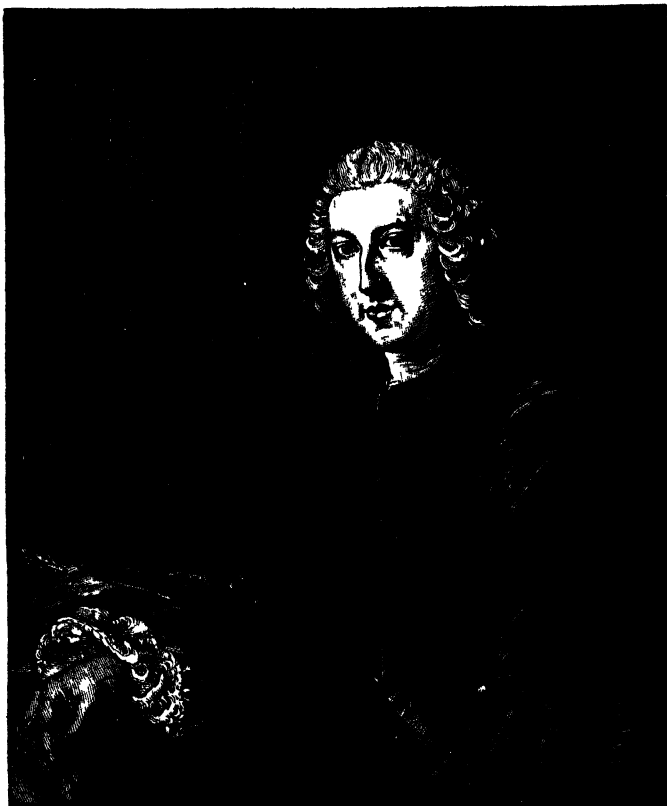
3. On these conditions no lasting peace could be made, and eight years later, in 1756, the conflict broke out again. This second half of the war is called the Seven Years' War, and is almost the most important of all the wars that England has fought in defence of her Empire. In the beginning, France was much stronger than England, but, as in the last war, she divided her strength and her attention between two aims, while England thought only of one: England wanted to maintain her supremacy by sea, and to keep her posses-

sions in the New World ; France wanted the first place in the New World and in the Old World as well ; so, besides fighting England by sea, she took a great share in the war in Europe which was to settle whether Austria or Prussia was to be master of Germany.

4. At that time the affairs of Great Britain were in the hands of William Pitt, who is better known as the Earl of Chatham, to distinguish him from his son, the younger William Pitt. Chatham, who became Prime Minister at the beginning of the war, was one of the greatest statesmen that England has ever had. Before all things he loved his country ; he saw clearly the dangers that beset her. " I know that I can save this country," he said, " and I know that no other man can." While other men were thinking only of the difficulties and dangers of their own time, Chatham looked far ahead. He saw that the war was not being fought to defend Britain alone. He looked out across the sea and saw her possessions in every land, and understood what a mighty future lay before them, if only all these possessions could be kept under the Union Jack. And so his whole life was spent in the service of his country, and he breathed his own high spirit into his fellow-countrymen. As one of his friends said of him : " No one ever left Mr. Pitt's closet who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in."

5. When the Seven Years' War broke out, France took the part of Austria against Prussia, so Chatham sided with Frederick the Great of Prussia. He saw that even France would never be able to carry on a struggle in Europe and in America and India at the same time,

and he determined that England should not make the



THE RIGHT HON. WILLIAM PITT, PAYMASTER OF THE FORCES,
AFTERWARDS EARL OF CHATHAM

(From a painting by Hoare)

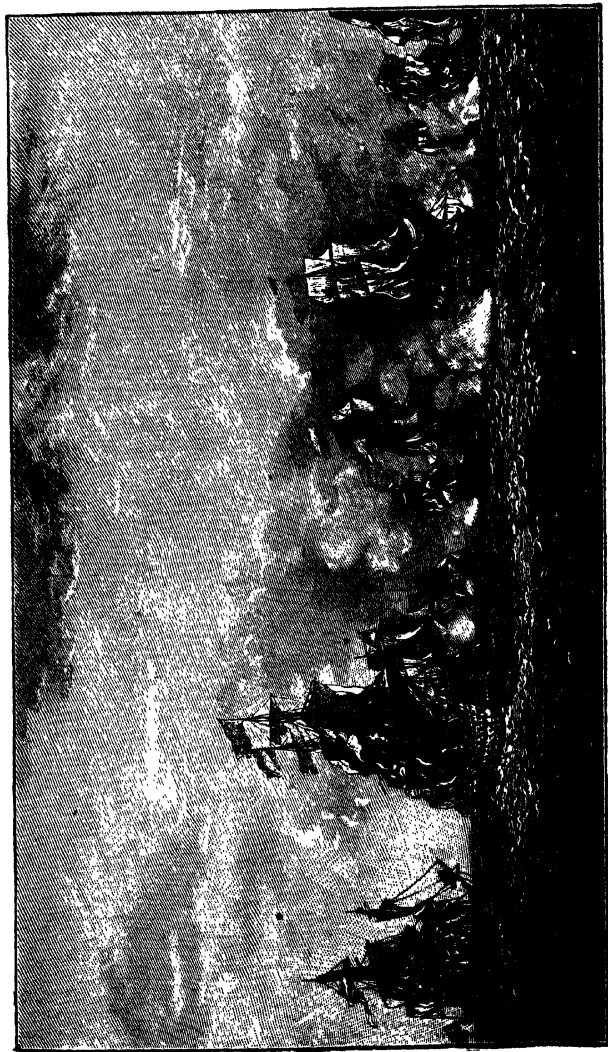
same mistake. So he decided to help Frederick the Great, by sending him money to raise armies for his

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wars in Europe, while he kept all the fighting power of England for her own wars against France, in America and India, and on the sea.

6. The first thing Chatham had to do was to destroy the French fleet, so that England might be able to pursue the struggle over the sea, without fear of an attack from behind. In the earlier part of the war the French had learnt that they could never defeat England, or take her possessions from her, unless they had a fleet that could destroy the British fleet; so during the years of peace they had built themselves a strong navy. At first they won some victories; they took Minorca, then they tried to send reinforcements to Canada, and finally they made a bold plan to invade England herself. But England had a famous admiral, the greatest since the days of Blake—the great Lord Hawke. Hawke's great idea in fighting was that "the enemy must never be allowed to escape." So when he discovered that the French were preparing to send help to their colonies in Canada, he fell upon their fleet of five battleships and forty transports just as they were ready to start. As he himself wrote afterwards: "At five next morning I saw them all aground." The French in Canada cried in vain for help, for not one of all that fleet started on its journey.

7. The same fate befell the fleet that the French had collected for the invasion of England. Unfortunately for them they allowed it to become divided into two parts. One of these squadrons was defeated by Admiral Boscawen off the coast of Portugal. The other managed to escape, but Hawke was not to be denied, and chased it northwards until he came up with it at



THE DEFEAT OF PART OF THE FRENCH FLEET, COLLECTED FOR THE INVASION OF ENGLAND, BY
ADMIRAL BOSCAWEN, OFF CAPE LAGOS IN PORTUGAL, AUGUST 1759

(From a picture by R. Paton)

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the mouth of Quiberon Bay, on the west coast of France. The question then was, could he attack it, for a furious gale was raging, and he had not even a chart of that dangerous coast. But the enemy was within his reach, and that was enough for Hawke. His pilot advised him to go no further, but he said, "You have done your duty by warning me; now obey my orders and lay me alongside the French admiral." A great battle was fought, the French fleet was completely destroyed, and so the fear of invasion passed away. Hawke lived many years longer, but he never fought another battle, for there was no enemy's fleet left for him to fight. Chatham was therefore able to turn all his attention to the wars in the East and the West, for the British navy held the command of the sea.

CHAPTER XVI

SEVEN YEARS' WAR IN AMERICA¹

1. THE rest of the war falls into two parts—the struggle in America and the war in India. In America the old quarrel between the French and English as to which was to be the chief power in the New World was still unsettled. You remember that the English colonies stretched along the coast, from Florida in the south to the Gulf of the St. Lawrence in the north; and that the French held Canada from the mouth of the St. Lawrence up to the Great Lakes, and Louisiana along the banks of the Mississippi. But if you look at your

¹ See map on p. 100.



THE DEATH OF WOLFE BEFORE QUEBEC
(Reduced from Longmans' *Historical Wall Pictures* by Henry J. Ford)

map, you will see that behind the English colonies, and between the two parts of the French possessions, lay the valley of the Ohio River, and it was over this valley that the fighting began. The French wanted it because they were anxious to join their two colonies into one strong country. But the English also wanted it, because they saw that if they once allowed the French to take it and fortify it, they themselves would soon be shut in along the narrow strip of land between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea. And behind this rivalry was the question of whether French or British civilisation was to be predominant on the North American continent.

2. Even before the regular war broke out, fighting had begun. The French strengthened their position by building a chain of forts along the Ohio. The English could not allow this move to go unanswered, so they sent an army under General Braddock to attack the chief of these forts, but Braddock was caught in an ambush of French and Indians, and he was killed and his army defeated. This was the state of things in America when the Seven Years' War began in 1756, and new troops were sent out from England and France to assist the colonists in the struggle for the New World.

3. The French were fewer in number than the English, but they were led by a brave and clever general called Montcalm, whom the English for a long time were unable to defeat. Chatham saw that the strength of the French position lay in the fact that they were in possession of the two great waterways into the interior of America—the St. Lawrence, which ran into the heart of the country from the east, and the Mis-

issippi, which was the road from the south. Chatham realised that if the French were able to plant themselves firmly along both these rivers it would be almost impossible to dislodge them. So he planned that a naval expedition should seize Louisburg, the great French fortress commanding the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and that an army should push boldly westwards, and by capturing some of the French forts, separate Canada from Louisiana, and so hold open the gateway to the West to the British colonists.

4. Chatham's plan was successful. In 1758 Boscowen took Louisburg, and in the same year the English attacked the French forts in the Ohio valley, and although Montcalm gained a victory at Ticonderoga, one after another the forts fell into the hands of the English. The fate of Canada seemed sealed, for the French had lost control of the St. Lawrence, their colonies were cut in two, and as the British navy was supreme by sea, they could not obtain help from France. But Montcalm was a brave man and would not allow that he was beaten, so he took up a very strong position at Quebec and prepared to defend himself as long as he could. Chatham saw that if Montcalm could be defeated, and Quebec captured, Canada would be won, and he looked out for a general he could trust, and the man he chose was James Wolfe.

5. Wolfe was only thirty-two, and we are told that he was a "remarkably ugly boy, with a shock of red hair and a turned-up nose." During part of his life, too, he was in very bad health. No one who saw him could believe he would ever make a general. But Wolfe had a great heart in his weakly body. He was as brave as

a lion, and once he had set his hand to a task would never give in until he had accomplished it. He was a keen soldier, and joined the army when he was only fifteen. By the time he was twenty-one he had fought in seven campaigns and was already a colonel. Wolfe



GENERAL WOLFE

(From the painting by Schaak in the National Portrait Gallery)

was one of the generals at the taking of Louisburg, and he had a great share in the victory. The place had to be attacked in boats, but the French opened so hot a fire that it did not seem possible to get near it. Then Wolfe saw that there was a part of the beach which

their guns could not reach, and there he collected his men, with the result that the last attack was successful. When he went back to England soon afterwards he was called the "hero of Louisburg."

6. Chatham saw what a fine fellow Wolfe was, and though he was quite young gave him command of the Canadian expedition. So Wolfe set out from England in the spring of 1759 with fresh troops to carry out his great task of capturing Canada from the French king. When he arrived he found that Montcalm had 16,000 men, and had placed them on a very strong position, on part of the great rock of Quebec, called the Heights of Abraham. Wolfe had only 9000, but he was not dismayed. "If I stay here till November," he said, "I will take it." Montcalm was too wise to move from his position, and Wolfe was not strong enough to drive him from it, so he could only wait, always hoping to find some way of getting at his enemy. But week after week went by, and still he seemed no nearer to carrying out his task. At last he fell ill, "sick at heart and 'il in body," but, weak as he was, rather than give in, he devised a daring plan for taking Quebec, just as it seemed quite hopeless to do so.

7. One night he took his army in boats, with muffled oars, up the river to a place where a tiny steep path winds up the Heights of Abraham. This place has been called Wolfe's Cove ever since. Twenty-five Highlanders dashed up the little path and surprised the French soldiers who were keeping guard on the top, and then the rest of the army scrambled up. In the morning, the French saw the whole British army spread out in front of them in battle array. Mont-

calm's strong position was turned, and he was forced to fight on level terms. The French were the first to advance. The English waited till they had come quite close, and then poured a tremendous fire on them. The French line was broken, the English charged, and the battle was won. But in the very moment of his victory Wolfe was hit by a bullet and fell, mortally wounded. A little later he heard a cry: "They run!" "Who run?" he asked, and when he was told it was the French, he said, "God be praised! I die content," and fell back dead. This battle was decisive, for Wolfe's brave enemy Montcalm was killed almost at the same moment. It was truly said, "The funeral of Montcalm was the funeral of New France," for soon afterwards Quebec was taken, and in a short time the whole of Canada, France's strongest colony, fell into the hands of the English. This brought the war in America to a close; for the Union Jack was raised in Canada, where it has flown ever since.

CHAPTER XVII

THE WAR IN INDIA

1. WE have said that the second great struggle against France spread all over the world. In India, as well as in Europe and America, France and England were fighting one another. So that you may understand what was happening, we must find out a little about the history of the English in India from the period at which we left off speaking of them in Chapter X.

2. You remember how the English had set up trading-stations in Surat, Madras, Hugli, and other places in India, and how much troubled they were by the jealousy and the opposition of the Portuguese and the Dutch. Gradually, however, this opposition died away. The Portuguese dropped out first, and then the Dutch, as you were told in Chapter XI., were beaten upon the sea. So it happened that between the years 1660 and 1680, or thereabouts, the English became the chief of the nations which traded in India. Their settlements grew rich and populous, and their reputation was great.

3. Now we have noticed that the Company followed the good advice of Sir Thomas Roe, and was content to trade, without taking any part in politics or conquest: but it was only able to do that while it was protected by the Mughal Empire. Even when the Mughal Empire was still strong, the merchants of the Company had been forced to protect themselves by force whenever they settled in a place where the power of the Emperors did not reach. Now, towards the end of the seventeenth century the Mughal Empire began to decay. It was so big that unless the Emperor was a very wise man, who worked very hard, and had loyal, unselfish servants, there was nothing to hold the various parts of it together. And when once the viceroys, who ruled the different provinces for the Emperor, began to think more of themselves than of the Empire, and began to act disloyally, there was nothing that could prevent disorder. Nor was it only through the selfishness of the Emperor's servants that trouble came. There were also formidable foes who worked for the ruin of the Mughals. During the reign

of Aurangzeb (1658-1707) the bold Hindu peoples of Maharashtra began to fight the Muhammadan power of the Mughals. Under the leadership of Sivaji the Great, the Marathas became a nation and extended their power over their neighbours. The Emperor Aurangzeb could not crush Sivaji, and his efforts to do so only weakened the power of the Empire. Maratha raids kept the Mughal dominions in a state of confusion, and shortly after the death of Aurangzeb in 1707 these dominions broke up into smaller states, and the power of the Mughal Empire came to nothing.

4. This had a very important effect upon the affairs of the English merchants. They soon found that the Mughal Emperor could no longer protect them, and that they would have to protect themselves. In 1664, and again in 1670, their factory at Surat was attacked by Sivaji; but thanks to their bold defence, the factory escaped. Still, it became plain that the policy of Sir Thomas Roe could no longer be followed, and the English began to think about securing their position in India. On the Coromandel Coast, as you remember, they already had a strong fortified place at Madras. In the year 1668 they acquired a good fort on the Malabar Coast, for King Charles II. of England allowed them to occupy Bombay, which he had received as part of the dowry of his Portuguese wife. He did not want it, as it was expensive to keep up, and he had to pay the soldiers who lived in the fort: but the Company was very glad to have it, especially as the Marathas were now so dangerous. So the Company took over Bombay, and the soldiers too. In 1687 it became the chief place of the English on the Western Coast,

and the older settlement of Surat gradually lost its importance.

5. It was now only the settlements in Bengal which remained unprotected. For a long time the English in Bengal had been content to live under the protection of the Mughal Emperor's viceroys: but, towards the end of Aurangzeb's reign, these viceroys began to oppress the English traders. The East India Company, without knowing the strength of the Mughal Empire, declared war against Aurangzeb. In October 1686 a small English expedition arrived at Hugli: but the English were compelled to retire before the armies of the Emperor's viceroy, and they came down the river to the place where Calcutta now stands. Aurangzeb was annoyed that they should venture to oppose him, and he destroyed all the English factories in Bengal. But the English in revenge used their sea-power to stop pilgrims from India going to visit the Holy Places at Mecca; and Aurangzeb was so distressed that in spite of his great power he allowed the English not only to come back to Bengal, but also to erect a fort at Calcutta to protect themselves. Fort William, as this was called, was the beginning of what is now the second largest city in the whole of the British Empire, and was for many years the seat of Government in India.

6. It was very fortunate for the English that during the reign of Aurangzeb they had been able to secure strong places for themselves, for when Aurangzeb died in 1707 there was much confusion in India. This confusion was greatly felt by the English in Bombay and Madras, where the Indian rulers round about became quite independent of the Emperor of Delhi.

In Bengal, however, where the Emperor's power remained for some time stronger than in other parts of India, the English lived as before under the protection of the Emperor's viceroy, so that their settlements in Bengal were both weaker and less warlike than their settlements on the Bombay and the Madras sides. In these places the English were greatly alarmed by fear of the Marathas, who became stronger as the Emperor became weaker. In the Deccan, there was a great struggle between the Marathas and the Subadar of the Deccan, known as Nizam-ul-Mulk, who was now setting himself up as a power independent of the Mughal Empire. Also in the Carnatic, a line of princes established themselves, who professed to be vassals of the Nizam, but were really as independent of him as he was of the Emperor. Much fighting went on all through the Deccan, and the English in Madras began to strengthen their fortifications and to increase the number of their soldiers, for they saw that if they did not protect themselves, there was no one else who would protect them. In 1740 the Marathas killed the Nawab of the Carnatic, Dost Ali, in a great battle, and soon afterwards their horsemen came almost within sight of the walls of Madras. The English there were much disturbed, but soon the Marathas were forced to withdraw. Just a little while before, the English in Bombay had been obliged to make a treaty with the Marathas, and in 1742 the English in Calcutta were so alarmed to hear that the Maratha armies had defeated the Viceroy of Bengal, Ali Vardi Khan, that they built the famous "Ditch" to keep off the horsemen of Maharashtra. All over India the power of the

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Marathas was making itself felt. Bengal was almost the last of the old Mughal provinces to remain quiet, and now it also was disturbed. The whole country was agitated by war: peaceable trade became more and more difficult: the disorders of the terrible eighteenth century were now really beginning.

7. It was not only against the disorders and troubles of the Indian states that the English had to defend themselves. They were also compelled to face the jealousy and the hostility of the French. We must now try to understand how the French were acting in India, and why it was that the wars which England and France were fighting in other parts of the world led to wars between the two countries in India also.

8. The traders of France had established themselves in India rather later than the traders of England; and it was not until the year 1664 that the French Company was established. A factory was founded at Surat in 1668, but from the first the French preferred to establish themselves on the eastern side of India. In 1674, Pondicherry, which was to be the capital of the French possessions in India, was established some distance south of Madras, and a little less than twenty years later (1690-1692) a factory was founded at Chandernagore, near Calcutta. At a later date, French settlements came into being at Mahé, Karikal, and other places.

9. As the French not only came late to India, but were also badly handicapped by wars with the Dutch, they found it difficult to dispute the trade of India with the English. Also the French Company was not made up of private merchants whose interest was in commerce, like the English Company: its managing

body was composed of French courtiers and French priests, who did not understand much about trade, and interfered with the operations of the traders. So it happened that the French Company was very dependent upon the Government and the Court of France, from which it received help and money. This was all very well so long as the Government of France was strong and successful: but when the Government of France was defeated in warfare with England, and lost credit, the French Company became weak and lost credit too. This partly accounts for the victory of the English Company, which was independent of the English Government, and relied upon its own skill and energy for its wealth and strength. Another reason for the victory of the English Company was, as we shall see, the sea-power of England, which prevented the French Government from sending as much money and as many troops to India as the French Company wanted.

10. We now know that for these two reasons the French could never have driven the English out of India in the eighteenth century: but at the time when the actual fighting was going on, no one realised this, and Englishmen were made very anxious by the cleverness and boldness of the French. It was really the struggle with France that made the English traders in India take an interest in Indian politics, and in this way the wars between France and England are responsible for bringing India inside the walls of the great British Commonwealth.

11. It was partly because the French felt that they could not win the trade of India from the British merchants, that they began to take part in Indian

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politics to see if they could not beat their rivals there, at anyrate. One of the greatest of the Frenchmen who have been in India was Dumas, who was Governor



JOSEPH DUPLEIX

of Pondicherry from 1735 to 1741. He saw that the best way to get the trade of India into the hands of his countrymen was to drive out the English; and he began to enter into alliances with some of the princes of the Deccan. The schemes of Dumas were taken up and pushed further by the great Dupleix, who ruled the French settlements in India from 1742 to 1754. He did not want only to get the trade of India away from the English and secure it for France: he also

wanted to found a great French Empire in India, and to rule the peoples of the country. Now you will remember how, on the death of Aurangzeb, the Mughal Empire began to break up, and how great was the confusion all over India. There was so much fighting in the country, and so many quarrels between different princes, that Dupleix had no difficulty in gaining great influence in the Deccan, by allying first with this Indian prince and next with that. So clever was he and so bold, that if it had not been for the rivalry of the English he might have succeeded in his desire, and built up a great French Empire in India. When the second struggle between France and England began, Dupleix found his opportunity. He had been steadily preparing for war while the English had been busy with their trade. He had collected a large body of Indian soldiers, had drilled them in the European way, and had used them to help the Indian princes who allied with him against the Indian princes who did not. So when the fighting first began between the French and the English Companies, the French had the best of it; and as they had a very strong fleet near at hand, while most of the British fleet was far away, they were able to capture Madras in 1746. But a quarrel broke out between Dupleix and the French General La Bourdonnais, so that the English had time to recover from their surprise. Before long a powerful fleet came to their help, and they in their turn attacked Pondicherry. But they could not capture it, and before they could have another try the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was signed in 1748. By this, Madras was given up to the English again.

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12. But although there was supposed to be peace between France and England, Dupleix did not abandon his ambitious schemes, and fighting went on in India between the French and the English Companies just the same. He found his opportunity in the internal politics of India. In 1748 the old Nizam-ul-Mulk, Asaf Jah by name, died, and Dupleix made an alliance with one of the claimants to the throne, Muzaffar Jang. It chanced that about the same time the throne of the Carnatic fell vacant, and one of the claimants, Chanda Sahib, was a supporter of Muzaffar Jang. So Dupleix had great hopes of getting two friends of his made the greatest men in Southern India, and he designed to use the power of these princes, when they had been established on their thrones, against the English. The English got alarmed, and naturally supported the rival claimants to the thrones of Hyderabad and of the Carnatic, so that warfare broke out. At first, all went well for the French. They were able to secure the succession of their candidate, Muzaffar Jang, to the throne of Hyderabad, and they were on the point of securing the triumph of their candidate to the throne of the Carnatic, when the aspect of affairs was changed by the brilliant fighting of a young Englishman, Robert Clive.

13. Clive had been a headstrong boy, and had been sent out to Madras to be a clerk in the establishment of the East India Company so that his adventurous disposition might find greater opportunities than it would in the peace and the quiet of England. When war broke out between France and England, Clive quickly showed that he was a born soldier. His men learned to trust him, and to follow him everywhere.

In 1751, when Muhammad Ali, the Carnatic prince whom the English favoured, was shut up in his last fortress of Trichinopoly, Clive made a wonderful march upon Arcot, the capital of the province, and captured it from the prince whom the French were supporting. This perplexed the French; and the Marathas, who were astonished at the gallant way Clive defended Arcot against all attempts to recapture it, began to be friendly to the English rather than to the French. The French claimant to the throne was driven out, and the candidate favoured by the English was established on the throne, so part of Dupleix's fine scheme was spoilt already. But this was not all. Clive by his brilliant generalship defeated the French so often that Indians began to see that the English were the stronger of the two nations, and the French gradually lost their reputation and influence. In 1754 the French Government, which did not understand the greatness of Dupleix, and only saw he had failed to expel the English, listened to the complaints of his enemies and recalled him. So for the moment there was no further reason for fighting between France and England in the south.

14. Before long, however, the English were forced to fight in another part of India, namely in Bengal. You will remember how the English traders in Bengal had lived for long under the protection of the viceroys of the Mughal Emperor, who ruled Bengal. As time went on, these viceroys became more and more independent of the Court of Delhi, until at length they were really independent monarchs, like the rulers of Hyderabad and the Nawab-Wazirs of Oudh. So that the security of the English traders in Bengal depended

much more upon the protection of the viceroys of Bengal than upon the protection of the Mughal Empire. But as the Bengal Government was strong, the English in Calcutta and other places were quite content to go on trading, and they took no part in politics. The fortifications which they had been allowed to build were neglected and ruinous, and they had no means of defending themselves should war break out. Between 1741 and 1756 Bengal was ruled by Ali Vardi Khan, a strong ruler who kept good order and protected trade, but after his death power fell into the hands of Siraj-ud-Daula. He disliked the English and was offended at some of their actions. As he had quarrelled with the trading community, both Indian and English, he determined to show them that he was master, and in 1756 he suddenly marched upon Calcutta with a great army and captured it. Some of the English escaped down the river, others remained as prisoners. Of those who were captured by Siraj-ud-Daula, about 150 were shut up by his officers in a small room through a hot summer night, so that all perished but twenty-five.

15. The news of the capture of Calcutta by Siraj-ud-Daula aroused such excitement in the settlements of Madras and Bombay that the fate of the prisoners who perished in the "Black Hole of Calcutta" was never forgotten. It was of the greatest importance to the English that their Bengal settlements should be recaptured, for the Bengal trade was really the life-blood of the English Company, and the chief source of the wealth they were using to fight the French. So an expedition commanded by Clive and Admiral Watson set off to Bengal to attack Siraj-ud-Daula. In

January 1757 Calcutta was recaptured, and one by one the other settlements in Bengal returned to the possession of the British. Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula agreed to restore to the English all the privileges, and to pay compensation for the damages he had inflicted on them.

16. Meanwhile the Seven Years' War had broken out between France and England in Europe, and, as before, fighting between these two nations in other parts of the world led to fighting in India. Hearing that the English had recently been fighting with Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula, the French determined that they would join the Nawab against the English. But Clive struck his blow first: he captured the French settlement of Chandernagore, and broke the power of the French in Bengal. Then, finding that Siraj-ud-Daula was not only disliked by the Indian traders but was also unpopular with some powerful Court nobles, Clive determined to aid in deposing him. The real reason why Clive interfered with the Nawab after the victory of the English at Chandernagore, was because he had heard that Siraj-ud-Daula was planning to obtain the help of French troops against the English.

17. Clive made a treaty with Mir Jafar, a powerful noble who was brother-in-law of the late Nawab Ali Vardi Khan and now desired to rule Bengal. He then defeated Siraj-ud-Daula at a great battle fought in the grove of Plassey, near Murshidabad. The unpopular Nawab was deposed, and Mir Jafar took his place. Clive established the new ruler firmly on the throne, and suppressed disorders in the country, so that trade once more began to flourish. Meanwhile in Southern India the French were making great efforts to defeat

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the English. A very able French General, Lally, attacked Madras with a very strong fleet and a powerful army, and the British fleet came up only just in time to save the place from capture. But Lally did



LORD CLIVE

*From an engraving by G. Stodart of the painting
by N. Dana, R.A.*

not get on well with the other French General, Bussy, who had been longer in the country and was more cautious. So gradually the French began to give way. The sea-power of Great Britain began to make things more and more difficult for the French in India. They could not get supplies of men and money from France,

while the English became stronger and stronger. At last, the French were defeated by Colonel Eyre Coote, Clive's best officer, at the great battle of Wandiwash, where Lally was defeated and Bussy was captured. Soon afterwards, Pondicherry itself was taken by the English, and the power of the French in India was really shattered. In Europe the war dragged on for two years longer, but at length, in 1763, the Peace of Paris was signed, and the second great struggle between England and France was brought to an end.

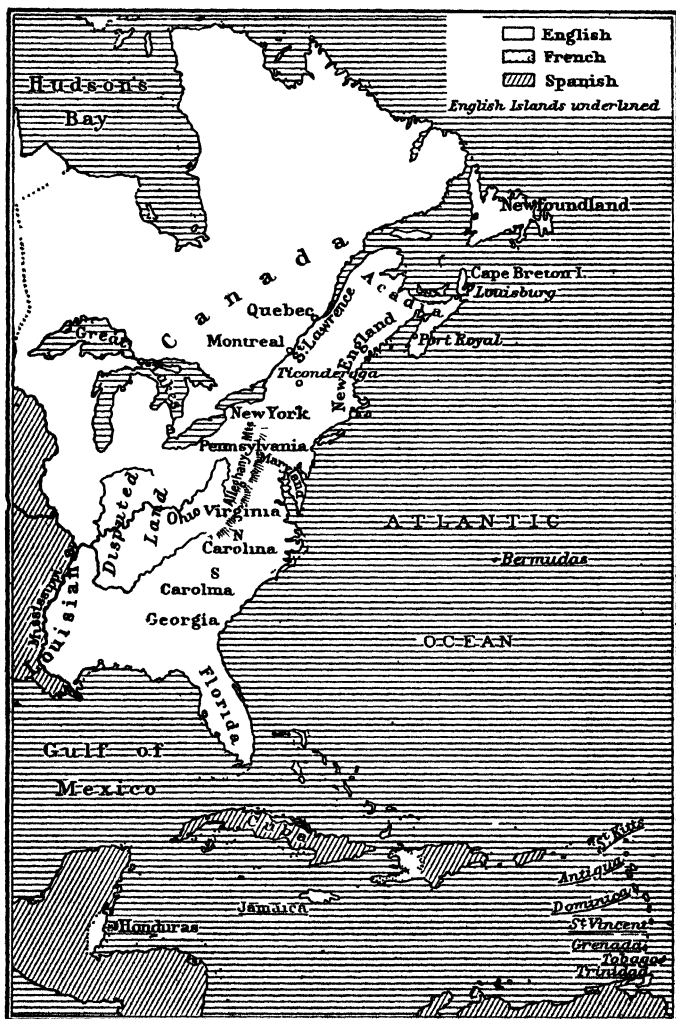
CHAPTER XVIII

THE AMERICAN REVOLT¹

1. WE have come now to a very sad period in the history of the Empire, for, instead of the glories and triumphs of the last war, we have to learn how the Empire broke in two and England lost all her colonies in America, except Canada and Newfoundland. In those days it was not possible for England and her colonies to be as closely united as they are nowadays. To begin with, they knew very little about each other, for there were no telegraphs or steamers, scarcely any newspapers, and letters often took twice as long to cross the Atlantic then as they do on the whole long journey from London to New Zealand now. Besides, the only way of travelling backwards and forwards across the wide ocean was in tiny sailing ships, which were very uncomfortable, and which were often swallowed up in the waves; therefore only adventurous people would sail in them, and there was no constant stream of people journeying

¹ See map on p. 71.

AMERICA AFTER THE TREATY OF PARIS, 1763



GEORGE PHILIP & SON L^{rs}

Longmans Green & Co., London, New York, Bombay & Calcutta.

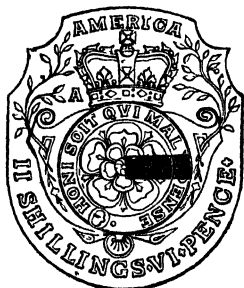
to America and Canada and back as there is to-day, bringing news from one part of the Empire to another.

2. So it was that people in Great Britain understood very little about New England, and most of the New England settlers had been so long in America that they had almost forgotten what the British Isles were like. These settlers, too, were strong men, and had learnt to be independent, for they had to make a living in a new country where life was rough and hard, and where they had constant battles with the French and the Indians, and among themselves. As long as Canada belonged to France they needed the help of the British fleet and British soldiers to protect them from the French. But once their old enemy had been driven out, they no longer felt the need of England's help, and so they began to think more and more of their grievances against their Mother-country.

3. In those days the idea that the real colonies—that is, settlements of white men and women—might come to be partners in a big Empire was very uncommon. People still believed that when a country founded colonies, they were her very own to do what she liked with. The American colonies were then most valuable because of their trade, so all sorts of laws were passed for them, compelling them only to trade with their Mother-country, though, in return, they had certain advantages over foreigners in trading with England. These laws did not greatly harm the American settlers, for in any case almost all their trade would have been with the British Isles, but they were troublesome, and the colonists grew more and more annoyed

with them. Unfortunately for the Empire, the wise Chatham had ceased to be Prime Minister just before the Treaty of Paris, and King George III.'s new ministers were short-sighted men who did not stop to think of the feelings of the New Englanders, and were hasty and tactless, and so before long a quarrel broke out. As we shall see, it was not so much what King George's ministers wanted to do, as the way in which they did it, that brought about the war.

4. Great Britain had spent a great deal of money in defending the New Englanders from the French in the last war, and her ministers said it was only fair that the colonies should contribute their share. So they wanted to tax them in order to pay for a small army in America. But though the taxes were very light the colonies would not pay them, for they said that as they sent no members to the British Parliament, it had no right to tax them without their own consent. The quarrel went on for some time, and the English ministers kept changing their minds. Some of them wanted to force the colonies to obey, and others said that it was the colonies who were in the right, and that Great Britain could not lay taxes on them. In the end all the taxes were taken off except one on tea; but by this time the Americans were so angry that, when three ships came into Boston



ONE OF THE STAMPS AS APPOINTED TO BE USED UNDER GEORGE GRENVILLE'S STAMP ACT OF 1765 FOR THE PURPOSE OF RAISING TAXES IN AMERICA

Harbour laden with tea, they would not allow it to be landed, and a lot of them, dressed up as Indians, rushed on board and emptied it all into the water. When the news of this Boston Tea-party, as they called it, reached England, the Government thought it was time to punish the rebels, and passed some very severe Acts. But the Americans called them the Intolerable Acts, and refused to obey them. There was no longer any hope of keeping the peace, and in 1775 war broke out.

5. The American War can be divided into two periods. In the first period it was a civil war inside the Empire, between the Mother-country and some of her colonies, and all the fighting took place in America. In the second period, it grew into a world-wide struggle with France, Spain, and Holland, and most of the fighting took place at sea. In fact, it became the third of the great struggles between France and England for the first influence in the world. In this chapter we will only trace the history of the first period.

6. The rebellion began in Massachusetts and the New England colonies in the north, but it soon spread to Virginia and the Southern colonies, and in 1774 a great congress of representatives from all parts met at Philadelphia to settle on a plan of action. The rebels tried hard to persuade the French in Canada to join them, but without success, for the Canadians had been very well treated by the British Government since 1763, and had been allowed to keep their religion and their language, which they loved dearly. They still hated their old enemies, the New Englanders, and feared that, if they helped them to defeat the British,

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they would turn round on the Canadians and rob them of their religion and their language. When the attempt at persuasion failed, the rebels tried to use force, and sent an army into Canada which took Montreal and laid siege to Quebec. But in the end it was defeated, and, after 1776, Canada was left in peace.

7. When the war broke out the colonists had no real army with which to fight the English, but a great leader rose up, called George Washington, who collected all the men who were eager to fight, and drilled them into an army which soon showed it could face the trained



GEORGE WASHINGTON

soldiers that were sent out from England. Fighting began in 1775. In the next year representatives of the thirteen rebel colonies met together and signed a Declaration of Independence, which said that they were free and would no longer be subject to the crown of Great Britain. From this time the inhabitants of

the New England colonies have been called Americans. Several battles were fought, and at first the Americans were defeated, but Washington would not give in; and the English general was so slow and lazy that he always let the enemy escape just when he had them in his grasp. At last the British planned a great campaign to divide the colonies of the South from the colonies of the North, so as to be able to beat them each in turn. But the plan failed, for one of the English generals, Sir John Burgoyne, when trying to carry it out, was caught by the Americans in the marshes of Saratoga in 1777, and had to surrender with all his army. This ended the first period of the war.

8. The loss of the American colonies was a sad blow to England. It broke up the unity of the English-speaking world for a century and a half. It was due partly to the ignorance and the domineering tendencies of the governing classes in England, and partly to the narrow-sightedness of the American colonists. But it also had great advantages. Both sides learnt much from the lesson. On the one hand, the English saw that their outside possessions could no longer be governed from London, and that they would remain within the Empire only as the English encouraged the same growth of liberty and political responsibility overseas as they had won for themselves at home. They learnt the free principles upon which the British Commonwealth of to-day rests from the bitter experience of the American revolution. On the other hand, the Americans soon discovered that no great community could be founded upon a mere assertion of independence and a refusal to take their share of

responsibility for common affairs with their neighbours. The lesson that liberty must be combined with unity they learnt in the years following the revolution, during which, after many trials and under the sagacious leadership of George Washington, they forged the first federal constitution in the world. This constitution, which has been the model for all similar constitutions, has enabled the American people not only to spread their influence and institutions right across the continent to the Pacific Ocean, but to teach successfully tens of millions of immigrants from Europe what citizenship of a free country means. So that though the peoples of Great Britain and America were not able to preserve both unity and liberty at this time, they both learnt a great deal from the separation. The war of independence in no wise hindered the spread of the Anglo-Saxon civilisation and of the political ideas developed in England throughout the world, and, as we shall see, the Great War against German militarism united the two peoples once more, not under a single political head, but in common action for a common ideal.

CHAPTER XIX

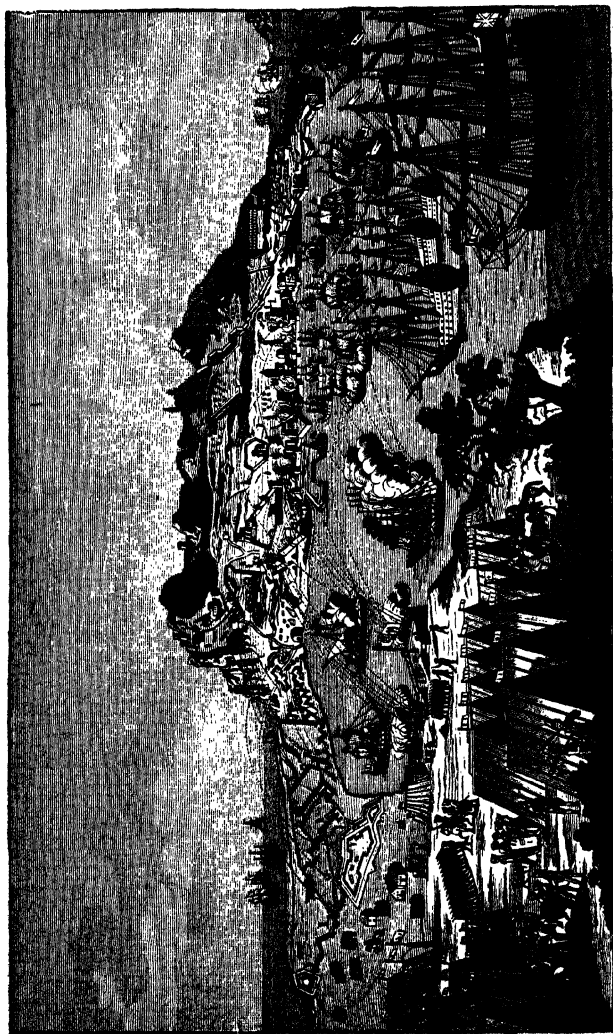
THE THIRD STRUGGLE AGAINST FRANCE¹

1. THE second period of the American War forms part of the third great struggle between France and England. The French had never forgiven the British for defeating them in Canada and India, and were longing to recover

¹ See map on p. 71 for American War; see map on p. 20 for European War; see map on p. 194 for Indian War.

their position ; so when they saw that the Americans really meant to fight their Mother-country and had won some victories, they sided with them and declared war on England. Spain also joined, for she was anxious to win back Gibraltar. The American War now grew into a great sea-war, and England found that she had to defend her Empire all the world over against the French and Spanish fleets. Both her enemies saw that if they could destroy her sea-power the huge Empire would fall to pieces, and they would be able to divide it between them. So while they helped Washington on land, they also did their best to defeat the British Navy on the sea.

2. But not only had England to fight France, Spain, and the Americans. She was unpopular with the other powers of Europe as well. Her victories in the last war had made them jealous of her power, and now she made them angry by claiming the right to search the ships of every country on the seas, so as to stop them from trading with her enemies. Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark said that England had no right to do this, and they formed what was called the Armed Neutrality of the North, which meant that they were ready to declare war against her at any time. Holland actually joined in the war in 1780, and added her fleet to the fleets of France and Spain. England, on the other hand, had no friends to help her, and was clearly in grave peril. It was at this time of danger, too, that she lost her greatest minister. Chatham was ill and dying ; but, even so, he insisted on being carried to the House of Lords for the last time to urge his country to fight on to the end. "Seventeen years ago," he began, "this



THE SIEGE OF GIBRALTAR, 1781

(From a contemporary print)

The Siege lasted from June 1779 to February 1783

people was the terror of the world——” He could say no more, but fell back, and was taken home to die. Happily the navy was strong and well equipped, and a great sailor, Rodney——“the greatest of English seamen save Blake and Nelson”——was at the head of it.

3. First of all let us see what happened in the New World. Owing to the number of her enemies in Europe, England could not send her generals in America all the help they wanted. She had first of all to defend herself at home. So her armies in America dwindled away through war and sickness, and Washington and the French gradually drove them back to the coast, until the British general, Cornwallis, found himself shut up at Yorktown, with Washington in front of him and the French fleet in the bay behind. At last, in October 1781, hunger and sickness forced him to surrender with all his army. Five days later the British fleet came up with help, but it was too late. The war in America was at an end, and the Americans had won their independence. England had lost her first colonies because her enemies had grown strong enough to interfere with her command of the seas, and while she was fighting for sea-power the Americans had won the day. But this made her all the more determined to defeat France and Spain, and to prevent these great monarchies from destroying the Empire.

4. In this later struggle there were three great battlefields—one off the coast of Europe, one in India and the Indian Ocean, and one in the West Indian seas. At first it looked as if the weight of this war all over the world was too great to bear. For while her colonies were breaking from her in America, England

lost Minorca in Europe, and France took one after another of her islands in the West Indies. But in 1780 Rodney destroyed the Spanish fleet in a great battle off Cape St. Vincent; and for four long years General Elliott held Gibraltar against the combined forces of France and Spain. It was chiefly for the sake of winning back Gibraltar that Spain had joined the war, and so, towards the end of the four years' siege, in 1782, she determined to make a final effort to take it. The last battle was a terrific artillery duel. For four days and nights 400 guns from the fleets of France and Spain bombarded the rock, and nearly as many cannon replied. At length the British gunners took to using red-hot shot. This plan was successful, for soon afterwards some of the enemies' ships began to catch fire, and one by one they blew up, until the fleets had to retire. Gibraltar was saved, for a day or two later Lord Howe came up with his ships and relieved the garrison. It was owing to this victory that the great natural fort which guards the entry to the Mediterranean is still a part of the Empire.

5. The second great battlefield between the French and the English was in India. In order that you may understand what was happening, we must go back to the time when we left off speaking about India in Chapter XVII. You will remember how Clive defeated the Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula at the battle of Plassey, and set up in his place the Nawab Mir Jafar, who was more acceptable both to the merchants and to the courtiers. The work done by Clive made a great difference to the position of the English in Bengal. Hitherto they had been merely traders, living under

the protection of the Nawab of Bengal, and competing with Dutch and French rivals. But from 1760 onward their power was very great, for the new Nawab of Bengal was indebted to them for his throne, and their influence stretched right through Bengal and Bihar.

6. Clive returned to England in 1760, and while he was away, things began to go wrong in Bengal. The new Nawab had made promises to pay vast sums of money to the English, in return for the help they had given him, and these sums he could not pay. The Company thereupon very unjustly deposed him, and set up in his place his son-in-law, Mir Kasim. Now Mir Kasim was an able and ambitious man. He very much disliked the power of the English, and he had a grievance against them because private English traders claimed to carry on their business without paying any revenue to him, as they ought to have done. So he determined to get rid of them, and declared war. But the Nawab was defeated, and forced to leave Bengal and take refuge in Oudh. The English then set up Mir Jafar again, in July 1763. Mir Kasim made an alliance with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, Shuja-ud-Daula, and also with the Emperor, Shah Alam, whose power was now very small. The combined armies advanced to expel the English from Bengal, but they were badly defeated by Major Hector Munro at Baxar in 1764. The Emperor made terms with the English, and after a little while the Nawab Wazir did the same thing, so that the power of the English was now greater than ever before in Northern India. But Bengal was badly governed, as all real power was in the hands of the English traders, who knew very little of the art of

ruling, and were only anxious to grow rich. Complaints as to the way in which Indians were being oppressed came to the ears of the East India Company's officials in England, and Clive, who had been made a lord for his services, was sent out to put things right.

7. The first thing he did was to force the servants of the Company to behave in a more honest manner, forbidding them to take presents from Indians and to oppress the people. Next he instituted a regular system of government, which is a little hard to explain. Before Clive had come to the country, Mir Jafar had died, and the new Nawab had promised to allow the administration of Bengal to be carried on by an officer appointed by the English. So that really the English were in control of the government, since the powers of the *Nizamat*, which carried with it the military power and the criminal justice of Bengal were exercised by a man they appointed. Clive now went one step further. He obtained from the Emperor the grant of the *Diwani*, which meant revenue-administration and civil justice. This was in August 1765. So that at this time the English were really in charge of the government of Bengal, for they held the *Diwani* by the grant of the Emperor, and they controlled the *Nizamat* by their agreement with the Nawab. But while the English held the real power, the Nawab was still supposed to rule: and the English did not exercise their power themselves, but allowed Indians to do the work for them. This is called the "Dual System," because there were two powers to do the work of government. It was not a good system, because the English had much power, but no responsibility for governing, while the

Nawab, who had no power, was supposed to be responsible for the work of government. At the same time Clive made an alliance with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, and restored him his possessions, which had been conquered by the English. He also made a treaty with the Mughal Emperor, whom the Marathas had driven out of Delhi, and gave him some land to live upon.

8. Clive returned to England in 1767, and for five years the system which he had made was allowed to go on. It did not work well, for the servants of the Company only desired to grow



WARREN HASTINGS

(From an engraving by C. J. Tomkins.)

rich, and did not stop their Indian officers from oppressing the poor people. But in 1772 Warren Hastings was appointed to carry on the Government of Bengal for the Company, and soon the worst abuses of Clive's

system began to disappear. He insisted that the Company's servants should do the work of collecting the revenue, instead of leaving it in the hands of people who behaved badly to the inhabitants of Bengal. British officers called "collectors" were set over each district, to supervise the work of revenue and of civil justice. At the same time, two courts were set up in Calcutta to which people could appeal if they felt themselves unjustly treated—the *Sadr Diwani Adalat* for civil cases, and the *Sadr Nizamat Adalat* for criminal cases. Hastings did his best to institute good government, and to remove the evils which had crept into the administration. He met with much opposition from selfish men who desired only their own advantage, and in his attempts to subdue this opposition he sometimes did things for which we must condemn him. But when we come to see his difficulties, and the noble way he tried to give Bengal a good government, we cannot help thinking that he was a great and good man, a true friend to India.

9. Many of Warren Hastings' difficulties were due to the disturbed condition of India, which made peace almost impossible. The Marathas, since we last spoke of them, had grown powerful, and had extended their power northwards into Hindustan until, in the time of Clive, they had driven the Mughal Emperor out of Delhi and forced him to accept the charity of the English. Since the time of Sivaji, the Marathas had not really been ruled by their own princes at all, but by powerful ministers called the Peshwas, whose authority was passed on from father to son. By degrees the Marathas became divided into several

small kingdoms, ruled over by such chiefs as the Maharaja Scindia, the Maharaja Holkar, the Bhonsla Raja of Nagpur, and the Maharaja Gaekwar of Baroda. The Maratha peoples thus formed what is called a "Confederacy" of several small states. The Peshwa, who ruled in the name of the descendants of Sivaji, was supposed to be the head of the whole "Confederacy"; but the other chieftains often quarrelled with him, and did not often obey his orders. In the middle of the eighteenth century Maratha soldiers robbed and plundered over most of India. They caused great distress both to the Nizam in the South, to the states of Rajputana in the West, and to Hindustan in the North. But in 1761 their power in Hindustan suffered a great blow, for they were defeated by Ahmad Shah Abdali and the Afghans at the battle of Panipat. Since the break-up of the Mughal Empire, the warlike peoples from the North-West Frontier of India had several times invaded the country, burning and pillaging, and inflicting great misery upon the people. Ahmad Shah had come to India to plunder, and he found the Marathas established round about Delhi plundering like himself. So he fought them and defeated them. This blow to the Maratha power in Hindustan is important, for it prevented them from hindering the English when Clive was establishing the English power in Bengal.

10. But the Marathas quickly recovered from their defeat, and their armies became the terror of all India. They did not want to govern India, they only wanted to plunder the country. As they were bold warriors, for a long time no one was able to stop them. It was

some while before open warfare broke out between the English and the Marathas: but in the time of Warren Hastings it began: and for the rest of the century there was really a long struggle between the two powers as to who should control India.

11. In the South of India, there were three powers with whom the English were brought into contact. The first was the Marathas, who were trying to make themselves supreme in the Deccan: the second was the Nizam, who was generally in alliance with the English: and the third was the new Mohammadan power of Mysore, which had been built up by the able adventurer Hyder Ali. The Government of Madras became involved in frequent wars, which were very expensive, and cost the Company much money. Despite all their efforts, the English in Madras could not really oppose the power of the Marathas, and found it difficult to avoid quarrels with Mysore.

12. Soon afterwards, the Marathas began to renew their efforts in Hindustan, and in 1771 they persuaded the Mughal Emperor to leave the protection of the English, and to come and reside at Delhi. Hastings replied by making a close alliance with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. This led to the Rohilla War, in which the enemies of the Nawab Wazir were defeated with the help of the English. Hastings has been much blamed for this war, but the power of the Marathas made it difficult for him to avoid helping his friend.

13. Not long after this war broke out between the Marathas and the English in Bombay, and the Bombay Government managed the war so badly that in 1780 Hastings had to send an army right across

India to their help. The great fortress of Gwalior was stormed by the English, and after some fighting the Marathas made peace.

14. Meanwhile, matters of great importance to India had been happening in England. The many wars which the Company had been waging, particularly in the South of India, had made it very poor: and in 1772 the Directors of the Company were obliged to ask the British Parliament for a loan. This was very important, because Parliament now began to look into the affairs of India, and to decide whether the Company was governing properly. From this time forward the British Parliament, as representing the British people, was never content to leave the Company to govern as it liked, but began to correct abuses and to take thought for the welfare of India. So in 1773 Lord North's Government passed a Regulating Act, which was intended to improve the condition of those parts of India which were governed by the Company. Among other important provisions of this Act was one which conferred upon the Governor of Bengal the title of Governor-General, and gave him and his council control over the Governments in the other Presidencies of Madras and Bombay. Also a Supreme Court was set up in Calcutta, where justice could be properly administered to those who demanded it.

15. This Act was not so good as it was intended to be, because it gave the first Governor-General, Warren Hastings, too little power to do what he knew to be right: but it is none the less very important, as showing that the British Government was beginning to feel responsible for the welfare of Indians. For

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some time it was found difficult to enforce the control of Bengal over Bombay and Madras, but gradually the new system became recognised.

16. It was in this condition that the English found themselves in India when war was declared by France in 1778. Encouraged by the promises of the French, the Nizam, who had been offended by the English, built up a great confederacy. The Marathas, Mysore, and the Nizam determined to expel the English from India. We have already seen how on the Bombay side the Marathas were compelled to make peace by the army which Hastings sent against them from Bengal. In 1781 Hastings sent another army from Bengal, this time to the help of the Madras Government, which was hard pressed by Hyder Ali of Mysore. The French were not able to give much help to their allies in India, and before long the English began to win the war. Hyder Ali was badly defeated by Eyre Coote at Porto Novo in 1781, and before long he died. His son, Tipu Sultan, was for many years a formidable foe of the English, but he was neither so strong nor so clever as his father had been. The French made great efforts to land an army in India to help Tipu against the English, and they sent out a great admiral, De Suffrein, who tried to drive away the British fleet from India and clear the seas for the coming of French troops. But Admiral Hughes, the English admiral, fought so gallantly that the French failed in their plan, and when peace was made in 1783 between France and England the power of the English in India was greater than ever.

CHAPTER XX

THE END OF THE THIRD STRUGGLE AGAINST
FRANCE¹

1. By this time all Europe was tired of the war. The English colonists in America had won their freedom, and France and Spain saw that they could not break England's power on the sea, so every one was glad to make peace, and the Treaty of Versailles was signed in 1783. Great Britain agreed to the independence of the American colonies, which have ever since been called the United States; she gave up Florida and Minorca to Spain, and the West Indian Islands of Tobago and Santa Lucia to France. On the other hand, she kept Nagapatnam, a town she had taken from the Dutch in India; and she recovered Dominica, St. Vincent, St. Kitts, and some other islands in the West Indies, which France had seized at the beginning of the war.

2. The loss of the American colonies was a sad blow to England. But the rise of America had one marked effect: it made Canada a strong and loyal part of the Empire. When the Rebellion broke out, there were about three million people in the American colonies. They did not all approve of the revolt, and about one million of them chose to be faithful to the King and the Empire,

¹ See map facing p. 128.

and refused to fight against the Mother-country. They called themselves the United Empire loyalists, and they had to suffer many cruel hardships during the war. When it was over many of them were forced to cross over the border into Canada, where they were given land and money by the British Government.

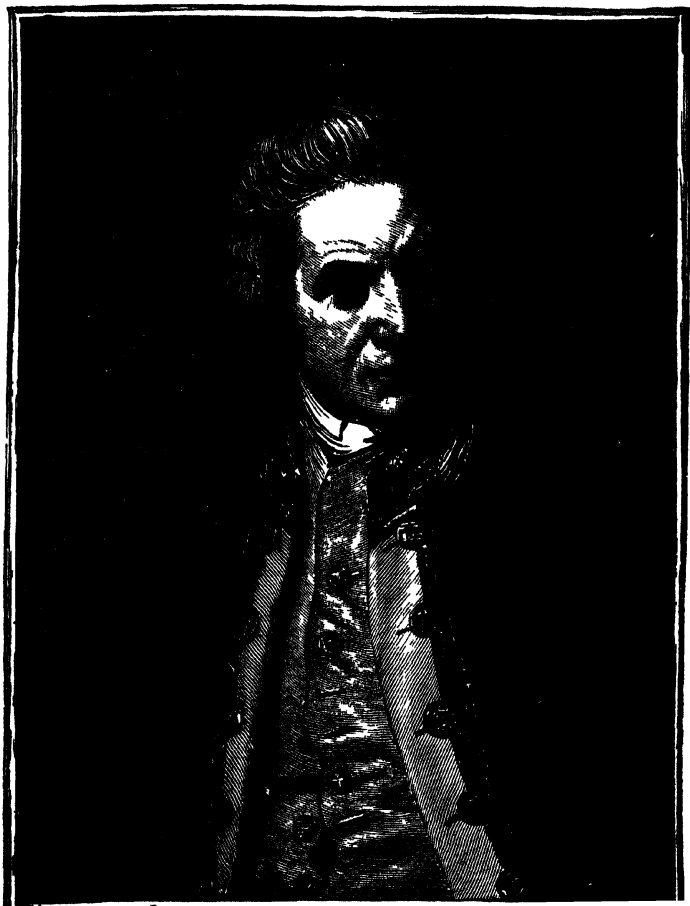
3. These were the first British colonists in Canada. They settled in two groups, one on each side of the Province of Quebec, where most of the French lived. The one group went to live along Lake Ontario, high up on the St. Lawrence near the Niagara Falls; the other settled near the mouth of the St. Lawrence on the south bank, where they founded the two colonies of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. At first these colonists had many troubles, but they set to work bravely to make new homes, and finally prospered. They were proud of the name they had won, and their descendants, who are still some of the strongest and most enterprising people in Canada, have always held fast to the idea of an United Empire.

4. So that the effect of the American War of Independence on Canada was twofold. In the first place it led to the settlement of a large number of British in Canada, which had previously only been inhabited by the French. In the second place it created a strong bond of common interest between French and British in Canada and the people of the British Isles, for both were anxious to protect the frontiers of Canada from invasion by the Americans to the south. As we shall see later it was not very long (1812) before such an invasion was made.

5. The American War of Independence had another

strange result. You remember that Dampier visited Australia in 1700. From that time for nearly seventy years nobody seems to have thought any more about it. It is not very surprising, for a great part of the shore of Australia nearest to Europe is rocky and stony, and you have to go some way inland before you come to water and rich soils. Besides, as there were very few natives in Australia, few signs of cultivation were to be seen, and so it looked at first as if the whole country was a desert. About 1768, however, Captain Cook made several voyages to explore those southern seas, as people had long had an idea that there was a great continent in that part of the world which reached all the way to the South Pole. Captain Cook soon learnt that there was no continent stretching to the South Pole, but he found that New Zealand was made up of two islands, and discovered a great many other islands in the Pacific Ocean. He also explored the coast of New South Wales in Australia, and brought home the news that it was a rich country and good for settlement.

6. Just at the time that Captain Cook came back with his stories of Australia, the British Government were in a strange difficulty. For a long time they had been getting rid of convicts, prisoners, and unruly characters by transporting them to the American colonies to work for the Government there. These convicts were not all wicked men, as you might suppose. In those days people were put in prison for much smaller reasons than they are now, and a great many of the convicts were merely poachers and men and women who were noisy and independent. When the



CAPTAIN COOK

American colonies broke away from the Empire, it was no longer possible to send the convicts there, and the British Government had to find some place to send them. The need was specially urgent because the close of the war had brought back to England all sorts of wild and adventurous spirits who were constantly getting into trouble. At last somebody suggested that a colony should be formed in Australia to which all these people should be sent. The idea was carried out, and this is how England came to take what was afterwards to grow into one of the most important parts of the Empire. She was only just in time, for hardly had her first ship touched the shore than two French men-of-war appeared in the distance. They, too, had thought of taking possession of Australia, but they were just too late. That is how the British Empire is said to have gained Australia by six days.

7. So, though during the third great struggle against France, England had lost America, even that loss had brought her some advantages. For she gained a strong and vigorous people in Canada which was devoted to the Empire; she planted her flag in what was to grow into the great country of Australia; she became the supreme power in India; and she showed the world once more that she was Mistress of the Sea, and would tolerate no interference with her independence.

CHAPTER XXI

. THE FINAL STRUGGLE AGAINST FRANCE ¹

1. WE come now to the last chapter in the story of the long struggle of England against the threatening power of France. This was their fourth contest, and it is divided into two separate wars, which together lasted for twenty years, with one year of peace in between. The first was the war of the French Revolution, from 1793 to 1802; the second was the War with Napoleon, from 1803 to 1815.

2. The war came about in the following way. In 1789 a great revolution broke out in France. The people had many grievances against the French king and his ministers, and finally they rose up and overturned the Government. Once they had begun they grew more and more violent. They deposed their king and cut off his head, and set up a new government, so cruel and bloodthirsty that it came to be known as the Reign of Terror. The whole of Europe was alarmed at these proceedings, and instead of allowing people in France to quieten down of their own accord, the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria decided to try to restore the old order by war. The French, however, were victorious and proceeded to invade Belgium. This drew England also into the war against France in 1793.

3. Fortunately for England, she had a strong man

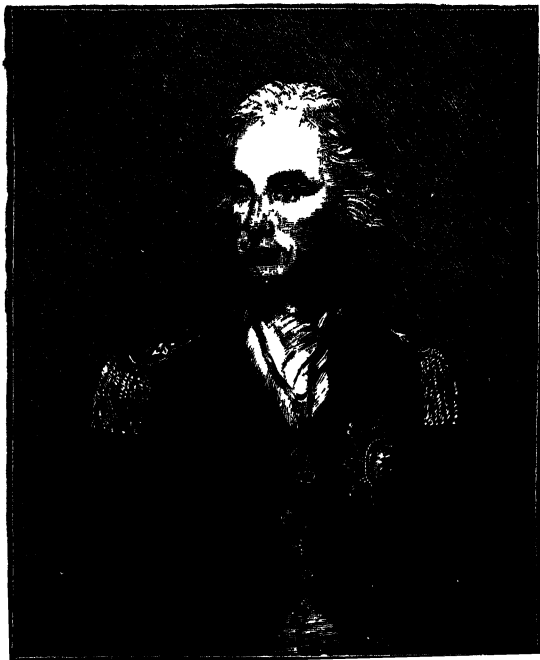
¹ See map on p. 20.

for her Prime Minister, and this was William Pitt, son of the great Lord Chatham. Pitt was quite a young man, and had become Prime Minister in 1783 when he was only twenty-five. For ten years he worked to improve England's internal condition and to make her rich and strong. When the Revolution started he tried hard to keep the peace, but when the French invaded Belgium and seized the Scheldt, Pitt joined with other countries of Europe who were at war with France. The first important battle was fought in 1794, the year following the outbreak of war, when the English defeated the French just outside the Channel, in a sea-fight called the "Glorious First of June." This battle established the supremacy of the British fleet. So the French had to look around for fresh ships. They therefore seized Holland with its fleet and its colonies, and they also forced Spain to join with them so that they could use her vessels of war as well. Then they made a plan to conquer the British Isles. The French and Spanish fleets were to attack England, while the Dutch fleet was to land an army in Ireland. But Pitt and the British Navy were too strong for them, and won two great victories. First the Spanish fleet was utterly defeated off Cape St. Vincent on the coast of Portugal, and then the Dutch were beaten at Camperdown. Both these battles were fought in 1797.

4. It was in the battle of Cape St. Vincent that Nelson first made himself famous, for although he was only one of the younger captains it was he who really won the victory. While the battle was raging, he dashed with his little ship amongst the

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enemy. Five of the Spanish ships poured their fire upon him, but, nothing daunted, he boarded one of their great vessels and forced her to surrender, and



LORD NELSON

(From the picture by Abbot in the National Portrait Gallery)

when the Spanish admiral's ship came up to help, he forced that to surrender too. So many Spanish officers came to hand over their swords that he could not take them all, but had to give them to one of



THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR

(Reduced from Lomax's Historical Battle Picture by Henry Ford)

his men, who tucked them all under his arm. After this great defeat the French had to give up their plan of invading England, and the British fleet, which was supreme by sea, was busily engaged in other parts of the world seizing Spanish and Dutch colonies, so as to prevent them from falling into the hands of the French. In this way Cape Colony, Ceylon, Amboyna, and some of the West Indian Islands fell into British hands.

5. While these battles were being fought by sea the French had been continuously fighting on land as well, and Napoleon Bonaparte had come to the front as their greatest general. He had won a great many victories over the people of Europe, and only the English remained. So he determined he would build up a great French Empire in the East, by driving out the English from India and taking all the land they ruled there.

6. You will remember how, when peace was declared between France and England in 1783, the English in India were stronger than ever. This was partly due to the influence of British sea-power, and partly to the skill and courage of the great Warren Hastings. When Warren Hastings left India in 1784, he had many enemies, and in England he was "impeached," that is, accused by the House of Commons of several actions which were considered wrong. This again shows how the English people were beginning to take a part in the affairs of India, for although Warren Hastings had saved the power of the English in India, they made him stand his trial, when accusations were brought that he had behaved in a bad way towards Indians.

Ultimately he was acquitted: but the trial showed that the English were determined that India should be well governed.

7. Before the trial of Warren Hastings had been thought of, the British Government, under William Pitt, had passed another Act, known as Pitt's India Act, for the improvement of affairs in India. By this Act, the power of the Governor-General was made greater, and he was given the right to act as he thought best in matters of seriousness. Also the control of political affairs was taken away from the Company, and given to a "Board of Control" in England appointed by the British Government. This Act opened the way for a much better state of affairs in India, for the territories ruled by the English were now subjected to the British Government in reality, although in name they were still supposed to be ruled by the Company. And questions of trade were not allowed to interfere with questions of policy and statesmanship, as they had done when the English in India had been merely a set of traders.

8. Lord Cornwallis was sent out to India as the first Governor-General under the new system. He possessed the power, which Warren Hastings had not possessed, of putting down corruption and purifying the Company's service. He put down all oppression and mismanagement with a stern hand, and from his time onward the "Civil Service" of India has been a byword for integrity and uprightness. Another of his actions which deserves to be remembered is the Permanent Settlement of revenue of Bengal. This was done to prevent the hardships which had been

caused by the Zamindars not knowing how much revenue the Government would take, when the settlement changed every year, and it was also intended to make the Zamindars prosperous and contented. But it was not altogether a good thing even at the time, and it has become worse since. It prevented the State from sharing with the Zamindar the revenue derived from the land as it became more valuable, and enabled the Zamindar to spend the money entirely upon himself: and it did not protect the cultivators against the oppressions which were committed by some of the more selfish Zamindars. Still, it was a real attempt to do good to Bengal, and some benefits resulted. Another of Cornwallis' reforms was the improvement of the judicial system.

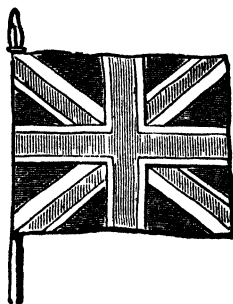
9. During the time of Lord Cornwallis, both the Marathas and Mysore were very strong in India, and their restlessness and warlikeness gave the English much anxiety. Cornwallis, who was a peaceful man, did not act vigorously enough against these powers. The result was that while the territories ruled over by the English were orderly and prosperous, the rest of India was sadly oppressed. In 1792 Lord Cornwallis was forced against his will to fight with Tipu Sultan of Mysore, but he did not crush him completely but only made him cede Malabar, Dindigul, and some other districts. The result was that Tipu remained powerful, and hated the English more than ever. The Marathas, too, though they were fighting among themselves, were looking with jealous eyes at the English territories. *

10. This was the time which Napoleon chose for

trying to build up a great French Empire in the East. French agents were sent secretly to India to live at the Courts of Indian princes, like Tipu Sultan, the Nizam, and the Maratha chiefs, so that these princes might help France to turn the English out of India. All the people in India who were jealous of the English, or who disliked the peace and quiet which the English were introducing, had been encouraged by the mild policy of Cornwallis and his successor, Sir John Shore. So that the French had great hopes of stirring up war against the English, and they made a close alliance with Tipu, the bitterest foe of England. But in 1798 Wellesley became Governor-General, and he realised the dangers of the situation. He knew that Tipu was in alliance with the French, so he attacked him, defeated him, and conquered his dominions. Wellesley also forced the Nizam to dismiss the Frenchmen who were living at Hyderabad. Then war broke out among the Maratha powers, and the Peshwa asked for the help of the British against Scindia. Scindia and the Raja of Nagpur declared war against the British, but were defeated in several great battles, of which the most famous are Assaye and Laswari. They were forced to make peace. War then broke out with Holkar, but he too had to make peace. Shortly afterwards, Wellesley ceased to be Governor-General.

11. During Wellesley's time, the English became by far the greatest power in India. The Peshwa, head of the Maratha Confederacy, was glad to be protected by them in return for payment: the other Maratha princes had been obliged to cease from their habits of disturbing India by war and violence.

12. Tipu had been defeated and slain, and a representative of the old Hindu line of Mysore had been set up in the place of the usurper. Both the Raja of Tanjore and the Nawab of the Carnatic, who had governed their states badly, were pensioned off, and the administration of these territories was taken over by the British. The Nawab Wazir of Oudh, like the Peshwa, entered into a subsidiary alliance with Wellesley, agreeing to pay a sum of money every year



THE UNION JACK IN USE SINCE 1801

for the expenses of troops supplied by the English to defend his dominions. So much did Wellesley increase the power of his countrymen that it has been sometimes said that in his time the British Empire *in* India became the British Empire *of* India. Thanks to the skill of Wellesley, all the great schemes of Napoleon came to nothing. He could not send any troops to India because of the British fleet. The only result of his efforts to stir up trouble for the English in India had been to increase the power and reputation of his enemies. He himself had led a French army into Egypt,

hoping to be able to get from Egypt to India. But just as he was setting up a French state in Egypt, his plans were spoilt by Nelson, who followed him and caught his fleet and destroyed it near the mouth of the Nile. "The Battle of the Nile," said Nelson, "was not a victory but a conquest." For without a fleet to protect him from attack behind, and to bring him reinforcements from France, Napoleon was powerless.

CHAPTER XXII

THE WAR WITH NAPOLEON¹

"We are left, or shall be left, alone,
 The last that dare to struggle with the foe.
 'Tis well ! from this day forward we shall know
 That in ourselves our safety must be sought,
 That by our own right hands it must be wrought,
 That we must stand unpropped, or be brought low."

—WORDSWORTH.

1. THE Peace of Amiens was only a truce. As England refused to submit to his orders, Napoleon determined to make a tremendous effort to crush her independence and break up the Empire. As usual, he began by stirring up trouble in India; but this was put down at the battle of Assaye, by Sir Arthur Wellesley, who afterwards became famous as the Duke of Wellington. When the Indian attempt had failed, Napoleon made up his mind that he could only prevent the British interfering with his designs by striking at the heart of his enemy. So in 1804,

¹ See map on p. 20.

after he had made himself Emperor of the French, he encamped a huge army of 100,000 men on the coast of France ready to cross over into England. At the same time he collected a great fleet off the coast of Spain to convoy it across. "Let us be masters of the Channel for six hours," said Napoleon, "and we are masters of the World." And he was so sure of victory that he had a special medal cast in honour



NAPOLEON'S MEDAL STRUCK TO COMMEMORATE THE INVASION
OF ENGLAND WHICH NEVER TOOK PLACE

(From a cast in the British Museum)

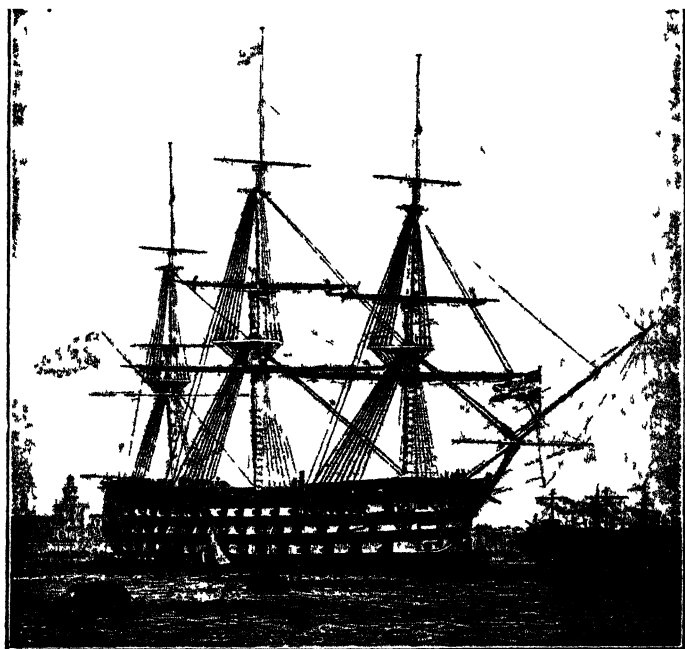
of his triumph. Anxiety grew in England. The coasts were guarded, and beacons were put up, ready to be lighted the moment the enemy came in sight. Day after day the people waited, but still Napoleon did not move. He was waiting for the fleet that was to guard this mighty army on its way across the Channel, and that fleet never came. For the great Nelson, who had foiled his plans so often, defeated him once more.

2. Nelson fought great campaigns all over the .

Atlantic to prevent Napoleon's fleet reaching the Channel. This campaign ended in the glorious victory of Trafalgar. Everybody knows the story of Trafalgar. Nelson knew that the fate of England hung upon the result of the battle. So before the fight began he put up his famous signal for all his fleet to see: "England expects that every man will do his duty." How well that duty was done was shown at the end of the long fight, for at sunset twenty of the enemy's ships had fallen into British hands, and both the French and the Spanish admirals had been taken prisoners. England was saved, and all Napoleon's army could not touch her. Once again Nelson had crushed his hopes, but it was for the last time, for "the greatest sailor since the world began" had fallen during his greatest victory. When the news reached England, people did not know whether to be more glad because they were saved, or more sorry because their hero was killed. Unfortunately for England, she lost another of her great men shortly afterwards. For early in 1806 William Pitt, who had been Prime Minister during all the difficult years of the war, also died. Pitt's spirit is best shown by his own words. "England," said he, "has saved herself by her courage; she will save Europe by her example." It was Pitt who more than any one else gave England the courage to play the part she did.

3. From this time Napoleon had to change his plans. He could not reach England with his army, for the British had swept every other navy from off the seas, and would not allow his army to cross over. But still he was determined to destroy the last centre of resist-

ance to his despotism in Europe, and he thought he would ruin her by destroying her trade. If she was mistress of the sea, he would make himself master of the land, and shut her commerce out of all the ports of Europe. And



THE "VICTORY"

so the rest of the war is the story of how he fought battle after battle, and conquered country after country, in order to make the whole of Europe into one great state and then use it to break the power of England. Each country that he conquered was forced to join his Continental System.

and shut his ports against British goods and British traders. England answered by refusing to allow the traders of the rest of the world to trade with France, or the States that obeyed Napoleon. So though England suffered from being shut out of Europe, Europe suf-



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON

fered still more ; for it was cut off from the outside world and worn out with wars, until at last its peoples began to rise up against Napoleon.

4. The first people who rose against him were the Spanish and the Portuguese, who opened their ports to British ships, and asked for help from England. So, in 1808, Sir Arthur Wel-

lesley (who afterwards became the great Duke of Wellington) was sent out to Portugal with an English army, which fought one of the greatest wars in the history of the British Empire. Wellington's army was small, and very often it could get no food, but for five long years it fought on and on, while gradually the power of Napoleon was being broken.

The French, who were also fighting in other parts of Europe, were driven back, first out of Portugal, and then out of Spain, and at last they were forced across the Pyrenees back into France. There were so many battles that you could not remember them all, so we will only give the names of a few of the most important. There was the battle of Talavera in 1809, which Wellington called "the hardest fought of modern times"; there was the battle of Busaco in 1810, where the fighting became so hot and close that the men had to use their fists because there was no room even for their bayonets. Then there was the famous siege of Ciudad Rodrigo, which Wellington took by such a sudden attack that it was said he "jumped on it with both his feet." In the same year the French army was destroyed at Salamanca. "I never saw an army receive such a beating," said Wellington after the battle. Besides these, a great many strong towns had to be taken and a great many other battles fought, before the long, final, nine days' struggle in which the French were at last driven back across the rocks and passes of the Pyrenees into their own country.

5. While this great war was going on in Spain, the rest of Europe had joined in the revolt against Napoleon, and finally defeated him in the mighty battle called the Battle of the Nations at Leipzig. Then the allies followed Napoleon to Paris, and made him give up his crown, and sent him to the little island of Elba in the Mediterranean, which they gave him for his kingdom. A few months later Napoleon escaped, and landed again in France. He

soon collected an army, and seized back his throne; but his new reign lasted a very short time, for all Europe rose against him. Within a hundred days Napoleon encountered Wellington, helped by the Prussians, at the famous battle of Waterloo, and was utterly defeated. After the battle Napoleon gave himself up to a British man-of-war, and was sent to spend the rest of his days in the island of St. Helena, far away in the South Atlantic Ocean.

6. The battle of Waterloo brought the long struggle between France and England to a close. The danger which had threatened to destroy the liberty of the Empire had finally disappeared. After the final defeat of Napoleon, France, England, and indeed all Europe, were so exhausted that they could think of nothing but how to repair the losses they had received. So a congress of all the powers met in 1815 at Paris to settle the terms of peace. By the Peace of Paris, which this congress approved, England retained almost all the conquests she had made in the Napoleonic wars. In this way the Cape (the most important stopping-place on the road to India), Ceylon, British Guiana, Honduras, Tobago, Malta, and Mauritius all became part of the Empire.

CHAPTER XXIII

SUMMARY OF THE THIRD PERIOD

1. So the long struggle between France, the great autocratic land-power, and England, the free sea-power, which

had begun in 1689, came to an end in 1815. It had taken 125 years and four terrific struggles for England finally to ward off the French danger, and so preserve her own freedom and that of the Empire from destruction, and during those struggles England had secured independence for the nations of Europe as well. Now let us turn back for a little, and see how England's Empire of 1689 had grown into the British Empire of 1815.

2. You will remember that at the beginning of the third period England had just won the command of the sea after her three wars with the Dutch. At that time her possessions were not very large, and were of two kinds. There were the real colonies along the east coast of North America, and there were the trading stations in the West Indies, Africa, and India. The colonies in North America were peopled by white men and women, but they were still small and weak, and were liable to be attacked by the French from Canada to the north, and the Spaniards from Florida to the south. The trading stations were mostly small islands and strips of land in Africa and India, where Englishmen lived to trade with the natives, but had nothing to do with the government. So that in 1689, though England had possessions in different parts of the world, she had no really large pieces of land across the seas, and no big and important colonies.

3. Now look at the map for 1815 and you will see how the Empire has changed. First take the colonies. All the American settlements have disappeared. They broke away from their Mother-country during the long struggle with France, and have become the United States.

But in their place new colonies in Canada, South Africa, and Australia have appeared. In 1815 these great countries were still almost empty, but they were good places for white men and women to settle and make their homes in; and the Union Jack flew over each of them to guard it from the attacks of enemies. We shall see later on how these new colonies, which were small and thinly inhabited in 1815, have since grown up free and strong under its protection.

4. Then there are the trading stations. These too have changed since 1700, for the English merchants and trading companies were unable to stay quietly in the stations they founded to trade with the natives, but had to impose law and order among many of the black and brown races which lived near by. In India, especially, the officials of the East India Company were forced to conquer almost the whole land, partly to save themselves from being destroyed by the natives, partly because in no other way could peace and security be maintained, and partly to keep India from falling into the hands of the French. So that by the end of the period the trading stations became great and valuable dependencies governed according to the principles of British law. The dependencies differ from the colonies, because white people only go there temporarily, for trade or public service, and not to make their homes, as in Canada or Australia.

5. Then, lastly, in addition to the colonies and the dependencies there are marked on the map a great many little islands and ports in different parts of the world. These are, chiefly useful not as places to settle in or trade with, but as stopping-places. There ships

could put in for fresh food and water on their long voyages between the British Isles and the colonies and dependencies. The most important of these are the naval stations, like Gibraltar, and St Helena, and Malta, which are like fortresses in the sea, and from which the British fleet can sail about all over the world.

6. But there is one thing to do with the Empire which we cannot find on the map, and which is yet essential to its unity and strength—sea-power. It is the same in 1815 as it was in 1700. The British Navy is still the mistress of the sea. In 1689 England was first upon the sea, because she had been victorious in the three wars with Holland; and in 1815 she was still first upon the sea, because she had defeated France in each of the four desperate struggles between them.

7. So that this third period was a very important one. It was a long period of strife, but it led to many good results. It led to the development of a strong yet free system of parliamentary government at home; for only a strong government could meet the danger. It led to the union of England, Scotland, and Ireland; because people found that only unity could give them the strength to resist their enemies. And, finally, the triumph of the English Navy made it possible for the peoples across the seas to develop in peace and quiet, as we shall see during the century that followed.

Important Names and Dates in the Third Period (1689–1815)

1689. William of Orange becomes King of England. *Beginning of first struggle with France.*
 1692. English and Dutch fleets defeat the French at La Hogue.
 1697. Treaty of Ryswick.

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1700. Dampier visits Australia.
1702-13. War of the Spanish Succession.
1704. Sir George Rooke takes Gibraltar.
1707. Union of England and Scotland.
1713. Treaty of Utrecht. *End of first struggle with France.*
1739. War with Spain.
1740-48. War of the Austrian Succession. *Beginning of second struggle with France.*
1746. Beginning of struggle between French and English East India Companies in India.
1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
1751. Clive takes Arcot in India.
1756. Black Hole of Calcutta.
1757. Clive defeats Indians at Plassey, and foundation of British Empire in India.
1756-63. Seven Years' War. Pitt becomes Prime Minister.
1758. Louisburg on Cape Breton taken by English.
1759. Hawke defeats French fleet at Quiberon Bay.
1759. Conquest of Canada. Wolfe killed at storming of Quebec.
1760. Sir Eyre Coote defeats French at Wandewash in India.
1763. Treaty of Paris. *End of second struggle with France.*
1768. Captain Cook's voyages to the Southern Seas
1775. War with the American colonies.
1777. Surrender of Sir John Burgoyne at Saratoga.
1778-83. War with France. *Beginning of third struggle.* Death of Chatham.
1780. Armed neutrality of the North against England.
1780. Rodney defeats the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent.
1781. Cornwallis surrenders at Yorktown. Independence of American colonies and end of war in America.
1782. Rodney destroys the French fleet at The Saints in the West Indies.
1783. Siege of Gibraltar raised after four years.
1783. Treaty of Versailles. *End of third struggle with France.*
1788. First settlement in Australia.
1793-1802. War of French Revolution. *Beginning of fourth struggle with France.*
1794. Hawke defeats the French fleet on the "Glorious First of June."
1796. British take Ceylon and other Dutch colonies.

SUMMARY OF THE THIRD PERIOD 143

- 1797. Spanish fleet defeated off Cape St. Vincent. Nelson first distinguishes himself. Dutch defeated at Camperdown.
- 1798. Napoleon stirs up trouble in India and conquers Egypt.
- 1798. Nelson destroys the French fleet at the battle of the Nile.
- 1800. Armed neutrality of the North renewed against England.
- 1800. Union of Great Britain and Ireland.
- 1801. Nelson destroys the Danish fleet at Copenhagen.
- 1802. Treaty of Amiens.
- 1803-15. War of Napoleon. He plans to invade England.
- 1805. French and Spanish fleets destroyed at Trafalgar. Death of Nelson.
- 1806. English conquer Cape of Good Hope.
- 1806. Napoleon plans to weaken England by the Continental System.
- 1808-14. Peninsular War. England sends help to Portugal and Spain.
- 1809. Wellington defeats French at Talavera.
- 1810. Wellington defeats French at Busaco.
- 1812. Wellington takes Ciudad Rodrigo, and defeats French at Salamanca.
- 1812. America declares war on England.
- 1813. Wellington defeats French at the Pyrenees and enters France.
- 1813. Napoleon defeated at the "Battle of the Nations" at Leipzig.
- 1814. Napoleon sent to Elba.
- 1815. Napoleon returns and is defeated at Waterloo.
- 1815. Treaty of Paris. *End of fourth and last struggle with France.*

PART IV

PERIOD OF INTERNAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER XXIV

BRITAIN IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

“This royal throne of kings, this sceptred isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise,
This fortress, built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war;
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands;
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England,
This land of such dear souls, this dear, dear land,
England bound in by the triumphant sea,
Whose rocky shore beats back the envious siege
Of watery Neptune.”

—SHAKESPEARE, *Richard II.*

1. Now we come to the fourth period in the history of the British Empire, which lasts almost to the present day. You remember that during nearly the whole of the eighteenth century Great Britain was fighting a desperate struggle with France to preserve her liberty and independence. You remember, too, that

[illegible]

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her sea-power gained her the victory, even against Napoleon, and made her the first colonising power in the world. Fortunately for England, Europe was worn out by these fearful wars, and a long period of peace set in. This peace brought two good results. The people in the British Isles were able to turn their minds to internal reconstruction and to improving their system of government, so that England rapidly recovered from the long strain of the war, and became vigorous and prosperous once more. And in the colonies it allowed the settlers thoroughly to explore their new homes, and to build themselves up into the strong nations that they are to-day. So the nineteenth century is called the period of internal development of the Empire.

2. In the beginning of the century there took place in England what was known as the Industrial Revolution. Up to this time most of the people in the British Isles had made their living by farming. The manufactures were small, and were generally done by men and women in their own homes. But now a great change took place. The power of steam was discovered, the first steam-engines were made, and machinery was invented to do a great part of the work which before people had done with their own hands. Factories were built where the machinery was put up, and the people came to live in towns to be near the factories, instead of living and working in their country cottages as before. Then great mining and industrial towns sprang up wherever iron ore and coal were found, and still better machinery was made. And all the time railways, canals, and steamers were being built to carry people and

manufactures quickly and cheaply from place to place both by land and sea.

3. The effect of all these discoveries and inventions was that British trade grew tremendously all over the world. For on the one hand, when England's own needs were supplied, manufacturers had to find fresh people in other countries to buy their goods; and on the other, the British Isles were no longer able to grow enough food for the millions in the new towns, and corn and food had to be brought in from across the sea. So merchants began to travel all over the world, selling the goods that were made in England, and buying in return food for the British workmen to eat, and raw materials, like wool and cotton, for them to use in their manufactures. In this way the British became the greatest manufacturing people in the world. Their merchants and ships were in every port, and their engineers and business men were working and trading in half the countries of the globe. As we shall see in the next chapters, it was because of this great world-wide trade that the Dominions grew so great, and that places valuable for trade like Burma, the Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, and parts of Central Africa, came to be added to the British Empire.

4. After the industrial revolution another movement began. More and more people began to discover that the colonies were very pleasant places to live in, and that it was easier to make a living there than in the older countries of Europe. And bigger and faster steamships and better railways were built to carry them across the seas and from place to place in the new countries. In consequence a great tide of emigration set in during

the second half of the nineteenth century, and numbers of men and women left the British Isles, and also Europe, to settle in America and the British colonies. It was in this way that the Dominions gained most of their population.

5. But the British Government had also to face the question of how to govern this great Empire which was developing so fast. We have already learnt that the countries of the Empire fall into two groups—the Dominions in the temperate zones, where white people live, and the Dependencies in the tropics, which are the homes of the coloured peoples. These two groups could not be governed in the same way.

6. In the Dominions was set up the same kind of government that existed in the British Isles. Before 1832 only the richer people in England had taken part in politics, but in that year a Reform Bill was passed to give the poorer people votes for members of Parliament. When once the great mass of the British people had begun to share in the government of their country, the idea soon gained ground that the white people in the colonies should be allowed to manage their own affairs too. So in 1840 what is known as responsible government was started in Canada. That is to say, the Canadians were given the right to manage all the affairs of their own country, although everything that had to do with the rest of the Empire, or with foreign lands, was still left in the hands of Great Britain. This experiment was such a success that responsible government was afterwards given to all the other parts of the Empire that were chiefly inhabited by white men.

7. This settled the question of how the Dominions were to be governed ; but it did not help in the problem of the Dependencies, for the black and brown peoples were not civilised enough to govern themselves properly. It was found that if riot, and bloodshed, and torture were to be put down, and liberty and justice set up instead, the British had to keep the government of these countries in their own hands. And we shall see later how everywhere they have put an end to slavery, and civil war, and tyranny, and how the progress of the Dependencies, and the freedom and happiness of their peoples and the progress they have made towards self-government have been largely due to the protecting and guiding hand of Britain.

8. There was still another question : How was the unity of this great association of peoples all rapidly developing to be preserved ? For a time most people believed that, as in the case of America, the self-governing Dominions would gradually grow into independent nations and end by separating themselves from the Motherland. This was known as the ripe-fruit theory because those that believed in it expected the colonies to drop off like ripe fruit from the parent tree. But towards the end of the century the feeling grew rapidly that Great Britain could not police the seas and defend the liberty of all the new lands against aggression from Europe and Asia by herself, and that the unity of the peoples who made up the British Commonwealth was essential to the preservation of their own freedom and to peace and order in the world. Though it was not found possible to set up any council for the conduct of common imperial affairs, the manner in which the

peoples of all parts of the Empire rallied to its defence in this crisis showed both how strong the sentiment of unity had become and how vigorous had been the growth of the new nations and younger peoples of the Empire during the century of peace and development they had enjoyed behind the shield of the British Navy since the Battle of Waterloo.

CHAPTER XXV

THE EXPANSION OF CANADA

1. You know how Canada became part of the British Empire in 1763, after Wolfe had defeated Montcalm at Quebec. Before that it had been a French colony, and so, naturally, even after it came under the British flag, nearly every one who lived in it was French. But you remember how, a few years later, when the English colonies in America rebelled, a great many of the colonists in New England would not join in fighting their Mother-country, but left their homes and went and settled in Canada. We saw that these people were called United Empire Loyalists, and that they settled in two parties, one near the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the other higher up the river in Ontario near the Great Lakes. Unfortunately, it was not long before the British colonists and the old French settlers began to quarrel

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with one another. The British wanted to manage their own affairs in their own way, and did not like the French laws or the French language; and the French wanted things to go on just as they were, and objected to the changes proposed by the newcomers. The dispute was settled for a time by dividing Canada into two parts, Upper and Lower Canada. Upper Canada, which is now called Ontario, was to be the home of the British people and to be governed by British laws; and Lower Canada, the country round Quebec, was to be left to the French with their own laws and their own language. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were to be two separate colonies, and except for Newfoundland and a tiny settlement in British Columbia, far away on the Pacific Ocean, the rest of Canada was still almost unexplored.

2. In 1812, war broke out between England and America, because, as you will remember, Napoleon tried to conquer England by ruining her trade, and England answered by refusing to allow any outside country to trade with Europe. This affected the United States, and so they went to war with England. At first the American ships won some success, but, after a time, the stronger British navy swept them off the seas. Then the Americans did their best to conquer Canada by land, so as to force it to join the United States, and for two years the war raged backwards and forwards along the frontier. First one side and then the other invaded the enemy's country; and sometimes one side, and sometimes the other, gained the victory. The best general on the British side was General Brock, who once took prisoner an American army twice as big as

his own. In the end he was killed in a battle near the Niagara Falls, bravely saving his country from attack. At last, in 1814, when Napoleon had been driven from his throne and the Treaty of Paris was being arranged, peace was made in America too. Each side saw that it could not conquer the other, so they agreed to stop fighting and to leave matters as they were before the war. Since then, the United States and the Empire have been at peace.

3. After 1814, the history of Canada falls into three parts. The first part lasted from 1814 to 1840, when responsible government was introduced and the Canadians began to manage their own domestic affairs. The second lasted from 1840 to 1872, when all the separate colonies in Canada were joined together into one great dominion. And the third is the period in which Canada has been increasing her population, and has grown year by year a richer and more important nation within the Empire. Now let us see what happened in the first period.

4. By 1814, there was a large English, as well as a large French, population in Canada. For a time their old quarrels were forgotten, for both of them had united in fighting bravely for their country against the Americans. But soon new troubles arose. There were many difficulties about the government of the colonies in those days, for London and Canada were very far apart, and as there were no telegraphs or steamships, news travelled very slowly. The English ministers could know little about the affairs of Canada, and they used to interfere in a way that made the people angry. The Governors who were sent out from England often knew

very little either, and then they fell under the influence of a few powerful families who gave them bad advice. So the people were not satisfied, and complained more and more that they were badly governed. Then to add to the troubles, the old quarrels between the French and English colonists broke out once more.

5. At last the confusion grew so bad that the English Government sent Lord Durham to find out what was really the matter, and to tell them what should be done to set things right. Lord Durham was a clever statesman, and he saw that there was only one way out of the difficulty. The Canadians must be allowed to manage the internal affairs of their own country in their own way. He also proposed that the French and English colonists, instead of being kept apart as they had been before, must be brought face to face in one Parliament, so as to learn to know and respect each other, and to work together for the good of their common country. In 1839 the Durham Report was published which was to change the whole state of Canada. In it Lord Durham advised that Canada should be given responsible government, and that Upper Canada where the British lived, and Lower Canada where the French lived, should be joined together under one Parliament. The British Government took Lord Durham's advice, and in 1840 the first of the daughter-parliaments of the Empire was brought into being. Soon afterwards responsible government was given to the other British colonies in North America as well. The first step had been taken towards making all Canada a nation.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE FEDERATION OF CANADA

1. THE second part of the history of modern Canada lasted thirty-two years, from 1840 to 1872. As soon as the Canadians really had to manage their own affairs, they found that they were very weak and powerless, for they were made up of a few little colonies dotted along the frontier of the huge United States. So they began to see that they ought to join together, and make one big State that would be able to stand by itself, and to manage all affairs which were common to the whole country.

2. There were three chief reasons for this. First of all, the French and English had not got on very well together. The disputes between them in the Parliament of Canada were so endless that neither side could do anything, and the government of the country had almost come to a standstill. It was quite clear that some big change ought to be made to put matters straight. Secondly, a great civil war had broken out in America in 1861, and the Canadians were afraid that, when it was over, the Americans might send some of their armies to conquer Canada. One band of American adventurers did actually cross the frontier, and the Canadians felt that, unless they joined together, they would never be able to defend themselves against a real invasion. Lastly, the Canadians were just beginning to understand how valuable the wide land that

0 200 400 600 800
ENGLISH MILES

0 2000 4000 6000 8000 10000 12000 14000 16000
HEIGHTS IN ENGLISH FEET

REFERENCE.

Mountains above 10,000 feet: MONTREAL
Towns above 25,000 feet: QUEBEC
Towns below 25,000 feet: BATHURST

Map of North America, showing the United States and Canada, with major cities and geographical features labeled. The map includes a scale bar for English miles (0 to 800) and a reference for heights in English feet (0 to 15,000). The map is oriented with North at the top, and the Atlantic Ocean is to the east and the Pacific Ocean to the west. The map shows the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence River, and the Hudson Bay. The map also shows the Arctic Ocean to the north and the Gulf of Mexico to the south. The map is labeled with 'NORTH AMERICA' and 'UNITED STATES'.

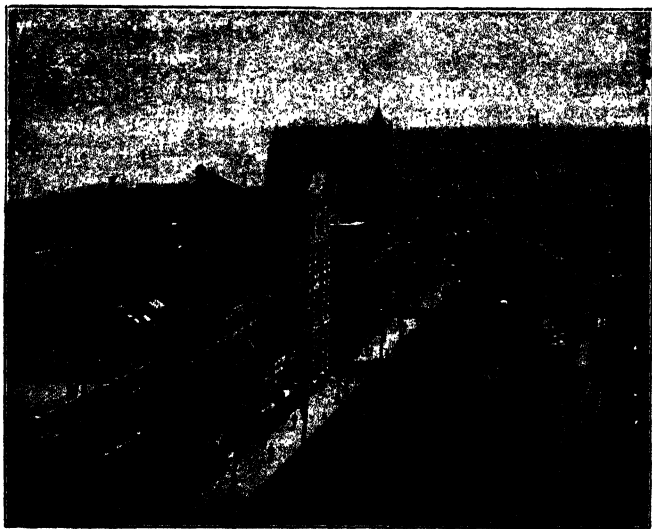
Longitude West 100 of Greenwich

stretched from the Great Lakes to the far-off Rocky Mountains might be. At this time a great part of it belonged to the Hudson Bay Company. Countless herds of buffalo wandered over the prairies, and the forests and mountains in the north and the west were full of animals covered with valuable furs. For years it had been left in the hands of Indians and a few traders. But lately daring men had begun to explore this unknown country. Some pushed far to the frozen north, and others tried to find a way over the wild Rocky Mountains to the sea; and so gradually all the Great West was discovered. But there was no proper government over it, and people became afraid that if it was not properly colonised and governed it would be seized by somebody else, and so lost to Canada.

3. So there were many reasons to show that the separate colonies ought to be joined together to make one strong State. The idea of federation, as it was called, was eagerly taken up, especially by Sir John Macdonald, the Prime Minister of Upper and Lower Canada. At last, after a great many difficulties, all the leading Canadians agreed to it, and an Act was passed through the British Parliament in 1867, called the British North America Act, by which the old colony of Canada was again divided into the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, and these together with Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were federated into the Dominion of Canada. Three years later all the lands of the Hudson Bay Company in the Great West were bought by the new Government. These have recently been divided into the three provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta. In 1871 the

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colony of British Columbia, which lies on the other side of the Rocky Mountains, facing the Pacific Ocean, joined the Federation, and so by 1872 the great Dominion was complete. A central government was set up over the whole vast country, from the Atlantic to



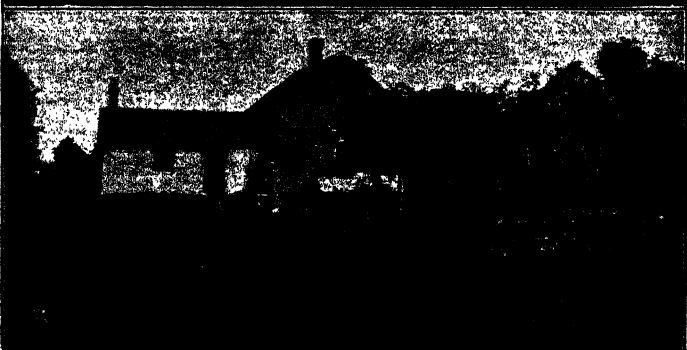
WINNIPEG, THE CAPITAL OF MANITOBA

(By kind permission of the Canadian Pacific Railway)

the Pacific Ocean, and from the Great Lakes to the North Pole, and Canada became the first and the most important of the self-governing dominions of the British Empire. Of all the Canadian colonies only Newfoundland still remains an independent colony.

4. The last period in the history of modern Canada

is going on still. It is called the period of national development. No sooner was the Federal Government in power than it began to build a railway right across the continent, from ocean to ocean, to bind the whole land together with a band of steel. It was a mighty enterprise to lay a railway over such thousands of miles of empty country, and across ranges of wild, unexplored mountains. But the builders set to work, and although, when they had got half-way across the continent, no pass had yet been found through the mountains, they persevered, and at last, by the end of 1885, the railway was finished. It was not long before the good results showed, for the railway opened up the whole country, and people began to grow crops and raise cattle on the great plains in the middle of Canada. They found that for hundreds and hundreds of miles the prairie was the best country in the world for growing wheat. As this news spread, people flocked in from the British Isles, and from America and Europe, and very soon there were hundreds of thousands of farmers in the Canadian West. After the settlers came others—traders, doctors, lawyers, and men with money to dig coal-mines and start other industries. So the rush of immigrants set in, and it is still going on, for the resources of Canada seem endless. Some of the newcomers stay in the east of Canada to grow fruit and corn, and to raise cattle and hogs; some go right across to British Columbia to farm and grow fruit in the rich valleys in the hills, to mine or cut lumber in the forests of the Rocky Mountains, or to fish or trade on the Pacific Ocean; but most of them stop on the prairies of the centre,



1. PLOUGHING, HANNA'S FARM. 2. HARVESTING
3. FARM IN THE FAR WEST

(By kind permission of the Canadian Pacific Railway)

growing wheat, and helping to push ever farther and farther to the great unknown North.

5. This rapid growth in her population and prosperity naturally made Canada think of her position in the world. She was no longer a weak country altogether depending on the Mother-country, but a rich State, able to defend herself and to take her share in the responsibilities of the Empire. So England's eldest daughter began to come forward to aid her to bear the burden. In 1897 she helped, on the trade of Great Britain by giving goods produced within the Empire what is called a preference over the goods of foreign countries. That is to say, British goods were allowed into Canada on payment of a lower rate of duty than foreign goods. Three years later the South African War broke out, and hundreds of Canadians went to fight side by side with the British troops for the honour and safety of the Empire. Then the question of naval defence came to the front in 1909, and Canada began to think of building men-of-war to defend her own shores and to help in maintaining the supremacy of the British Navy at sea. And in 1914, when the Great War broke out, Canada threw herself into the struggle against autocracy with her whole strength, and, as we shall see, took a glorious part in helping to win the victory.

CHAPTER XXVII

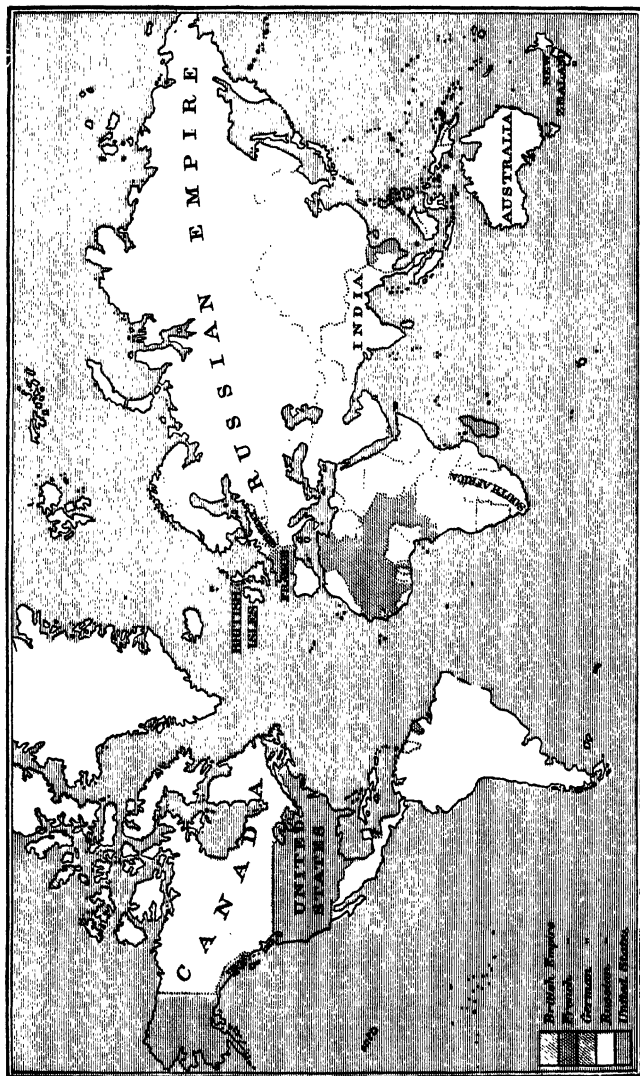
THE COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA

1. IN an earlier chapter we learnt how Australia came to be discovered, and how it was colonised. To begin with, the new settlement did not grow very fast. The first settlements were made on the south-eastern coast—the portion farthest from England, and in Tasmania, still farther away. There was, therefore, little trade between England and Australia in the early days, and the population of the country grew very slowly. Even as late as 1820 the settlements on the mainland of the continent covered little more than the town of Sydney and the country round about it.

2. But about 1823 the area of colonisation began to increase rapidly. In the first place, in that year some people thought that instead of sailing all round Australia to Sydney, they would explore the south-western corner and see if there was not rich land to be found there. So there they landed and founded the town of Fremantle, and later on the settlement grew into the great state of Western Australia, which now covers one-third of the whole continent.

3. In the second place, immigration of settlers was brought about through the agitation against the transportation of convicts to Australia. You will remember how the British Government used to send their convicts to America, and how, after the New England colonies had broken away, they began to send them to Australia instead. As we have already learnt, many of these convicts were not wicked men. They were poachers

THE POSSESSIONS OF THE GREAT POWERS IN 1900



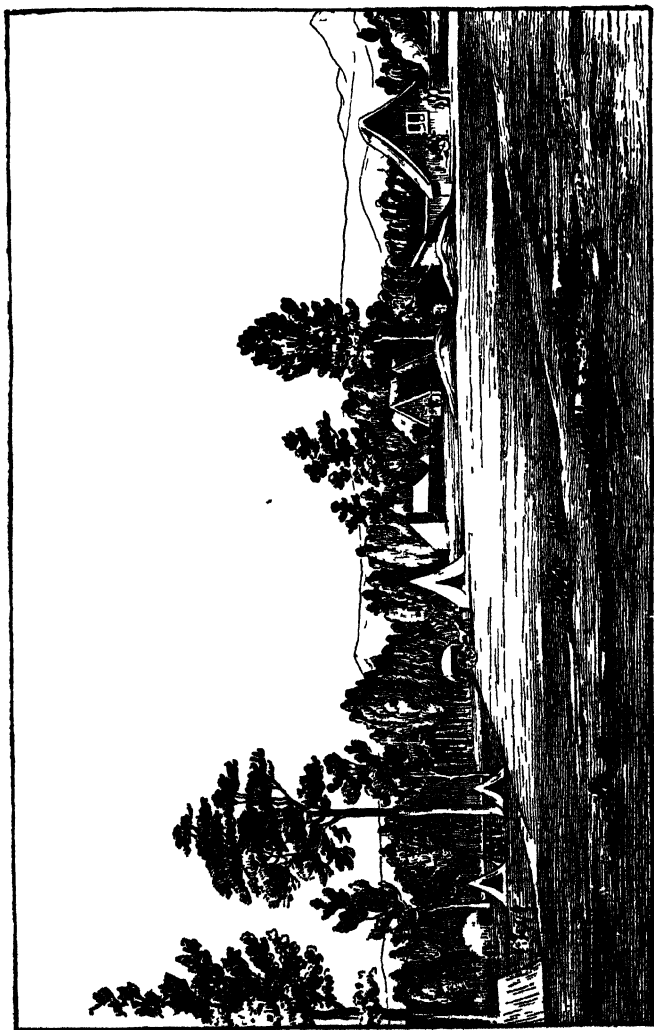
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and unruly soldiers who had nothing to do when peace was declared, and troublesome and rebellious politicians whom the Government were anxious to get rid of. Some of these people became afterwards leading men in Australia. But among them were a number of evil-doers, and as the Australian settlers wanted to build up a strong, well-governed state, they naturally objected to such people being sent out to live in their country. At the head of the movement was a man called Wentworth. For some time he worked in vain; but at last he was successful, and, after 1840, the British Government agreed to send no more convicts to Australia.

4. But Wentworth was not the only person interested in immigration. There was another man, called Wakefield, who saw that, if the convicts were to be kept away, the country would come to a standstill for want of people to do the work. So he started the idea of encouraging labourers and other men who found it difficult to make a living in England to go and settle in Australia. Fortunately his plan succeeded, and a stream of emigration set in, or the country would never have grown as it has. The first of Wakefield's settlers founded the city of Adelaide in 1834, which afterwards became the capital of a new colony called South Australia. Two years later some people from New South Wales and Tasmania founded the town of Melbourne, on almost the most southerly point of Australia. This settlement at first formed part of New South Wales, but in 1851 it was made into a separate colony and called Victoria.

5. In this way colonies were founded all along the south and east coasts of Australia. But the northern shores and the interior of the continent were still unoccu-

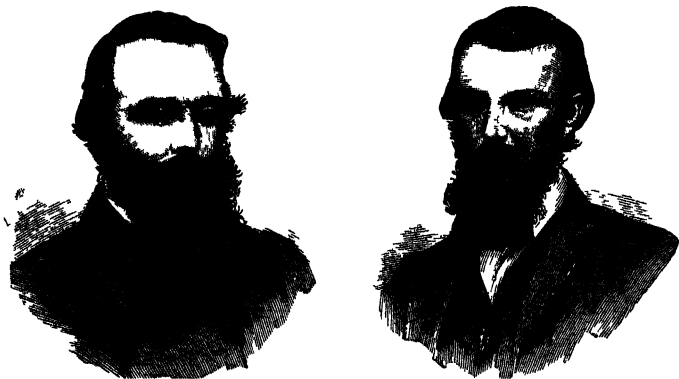


THE FIRST SETTLEMENT AT ADELAIDE, 1836

ped. This was because all the north of Australia is in the tropics, and much less healthy and pleasant to live in than the south ; and because in the middle of the country there is a great desert with no rivers or springs. So naturally the first emigrants settled along the southern and south-eastern coasts, where it was cool and where there was plenty of water and rich pasture land. But later on, as these southern coast lands were taken up, the newcomers pushed farther afield, and they soon found that most of the country along the north-eastern shores was very rich, and that people could quite well live and work there if they built suitable houses and took proper care of their health. They then began to press inland, and before very long enough people had settled in these parts to form a new colony, which in 1859 was recognised as one of the five great colonies of Australia, and was called Queensland.

6. Meanwhile adventurous men, not content with settling along the coast, had been exploring the centre of Australia as well. Expedition after expedition set out to discover what it was like. But they all came back exhausted by hunger and thirst, saying that they had found nothing but miles and miles of desert. There were many sad stories of failure, and many were the brave explorers who lost their lives in these hot, sandy deserts before the map of Australia could be properly drawn. One of the saddest stories is told of a party which set out to cross the whole land from south to north. This expedition was badly led, and wandered on and on until at last its members separated. Four of them made a wild dash for the north and nearly reached the sea ; but it was a deserted shore, and their stores were almost used up, so they had to

turn back. Then they lost their way and wandered about the middle of Australia. After a time, as none of them came home, search parties were sent out. For a long time the rescuers could find no signs of them, but one day they came upon a white man with a party of natives. They asked him who he was. "I am King," he said, "the last of the explorers"



ROBERT O'HARA BURKE AND WILLIAM JOHN WILLS

Two of the Leaders of the First Expedition that attempted to cross Australia from South to North

7. When at last all this country was opened up, part of it was joined to Queensland, and part of it was handed over to South Australia. Since then people have found that in much of the Central Australian desert there is water a little way below the surface, which can be reached if wells are sunk far enough into the ground. So a great part of the interior, which was thought to be a useless desert, has become a thriving country and supports large flocks of sheep. It is quite possible that

before very long, the old desert of Australia will be one of the great farming countries of the Empire.

8. So we see that by 1860 almost the whole of the vast continent had been explored, and though only really populated along the southern and eastern coast line, had been divided up into five great States. These were New South Wales, the original colony; Victoria, the southernmost state; South Australia, which ran right across the continent from north to south; Western Australia, the largest state; and Queensland, the most northerly of them all.

9. It was not very long before the news of the success of responsible government in Canada began to reach the ears of the Australians. In Australia, as well as in Canada, there had been frequent disputes between the British Government and the local population about the proper way of governing the country, for Australia was so far from England that in those days, when letters, messages, and news had to travel by slow sailing ships, the people of one country knew very little about the people of the other. So a demand soon grew up that the system which had worked so well in Canada should be given a trial in Australia also. The British Government agreed, and in 1851 the four colonies which were properly colonised at that time—New South Wales, which then included Queensland, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania—set to work to draw up constitutions for themselves. These constitutions were shortly afterwards accepted and passed into law by the Imperial Parliament. In 1859 Queensland was recognised as a separate colony and received its own constitution, and Western Australia, which grew much more slowly, followed suit in 1890.

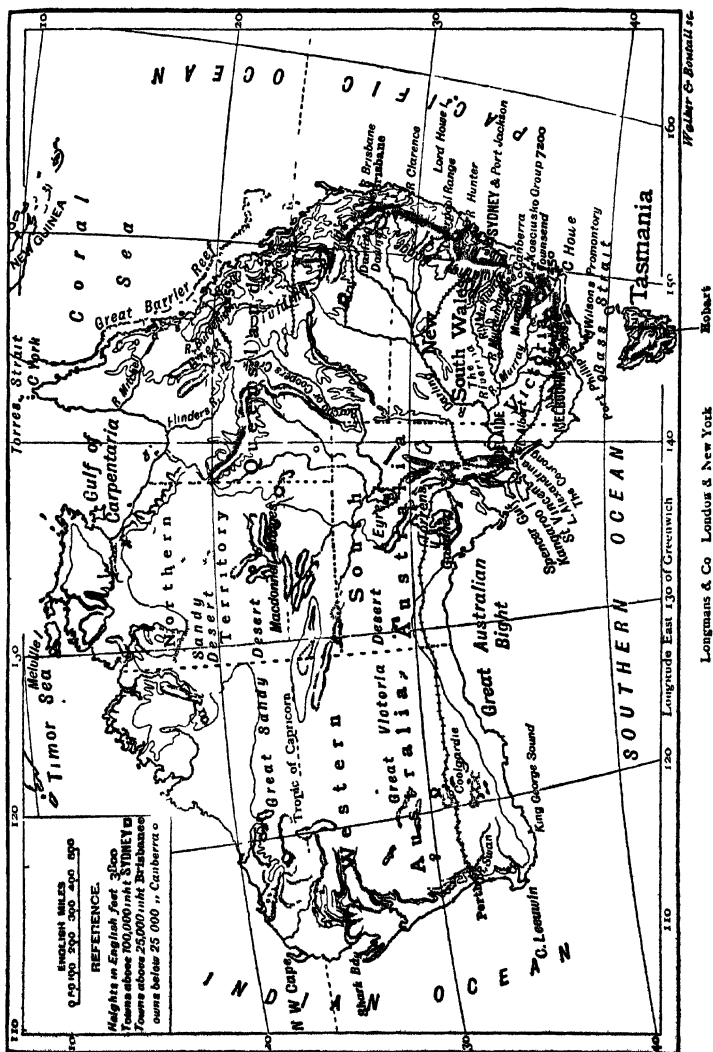
CHAPTER XXVIII

THE FEDERATION OF AUSTRALIA

1. FOR some time after they were given responsible government, the Australian States were kept busy arranging their own affairs. Their great trouble was to find settlers to fill up the country, for now they found just the same difficulty that England had met with in old days, when she tried to plant her first colonies in America: they could not persuade people to travel thousands of miles, to set up their homes in a strange land where it was sometimes hard to make a living, unless there were very good reasons to induce them to go. This want of immigrants was all the more serious, because the Australians knew that if they did not people the country properly, sooner or later some foreign people would come and occupy part of it.

2. Fortunately, about the middle of the century a discovery was made that changed the whole life of Australia. An Australian who was working in the gold-fields of America noticed that the land was very like some parts of his own native country. This made him wonder if there was not gold in Australia also. So he journeyed back to New South Wales to find out, and, after some explorations, found that the valleys in the mountains were rich in gold. No sooner did this news spread than men poured in from all sides. Up to this time the chief industry of the country had been sheep rearing, and most of the people had been scattered about on farms, or gathered in a few towns on the

THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA



coast. But now the farmers left their sheep, the shopkeepers left their stores, the sailors even left their ships in the ports, and joined in the rush for gold. Soon afterwards gold was found in other parts of Australia as well, in Victoria and Queensland, and later still in Western Australia, and when the news reached England,



WOOL SORTING

thousands of men packed up their goods and sailed off in the hopes of making a fortune.

3. At first this wild rush of people made great confusion in the quiet land of Australia, but by degrees the miners settled down, and gold-mining grew into a steady industry which supported large numbers of people. But naturally this big new population brought about a change in the life of the country. The newcomers

wanted food, and clothes, and goods of all kinds. The consequence was that the farmers found that they had a far bigger market for their goods than ever before, and the shipping companies had to send more ships to Australia to carry all the stores ordered by traders for the new towns and mining camps. In this way the country was opened out, and railways and telegraphs were built all over the land. Then enterprising men began to think of sending Australian goods back in the ships that had brought the stores from England. At first only wool was sent in addition to the minerals, because the long hot voyage made the carriage of other farm produce very difficult. But after a time a way was found of preserving meat, butter, and other foods, by packing them in iced chambers. This discovery was a tremendous help to the development of the country, and the farming industry grew by leaps and bounds, so that now there are about 5,000,000 people in Australia, and they export great quantities of wool, mutton, grain, and dairy produce every year, as well as gold and other minerals.

4. Before very long the Australian States found that responsible government had not settled all their troubles. Even the discovery of gold, which had been such a great help to their country in many ways, brought new difficulties. It attracted the Chinese and other peoples of Asia, who began to think of leaving their own crowded lands and settling in Australia. But the Australians did not want them, for they felt that if their land was to become a strong and important part of the Empire, it must be kept a white man's land. They knew that if they let the peoples of Asia come

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and settle in Australia it would lead to endless quarrels between the different races and to all kinds of trouble, so they decided that only Europeans should be allowed to settle among them. Another of the difficulties was that they were always disputing amongst themselves; then, too, there were a great many duties, like the defence of their coasts, which were being left undone because there was no one government which could speak for the whole country. So people began to look at the example of Canada, and to talk of the need of federation. They knew that up to this time they had been safe from foreign enemies, and had been able to keep out the Asiatics, because the British Navy had protected them; but they saw that some day the British Navy might be wanted in some other part of the world, and then they would have to trust to themselves alone.

5. Just about this time France and Germany took some of the islands to the north and east of Australia. This made the Australians want to prepare to defend their shores, for they were afraid they might be attacked from these islands. But when they tried to take the first steps, they found that, so long as they were divided into five separate States, they could not agree upon what ought to be done. So a meeting was held of members from all the States, and after a great many difficulties and delays a federal constitution was drawn up which was agreed to by them all, and passed by the British Parliament in 1900. This constitution created one Australian Parliament to manage everything that had to do with the outside world, like defence, and customs duties, and immigration, while

it left the various States to look after their own local affairs. In this way the dangers of disunion were brought to an end, and the Australians became one people, and the colony of Australia became one of the great self-governing Dominions of the Empire.

6. Once the federation of the different States had been completed, the Australians began to take a great interest in the question of the defence of the Empire. Even while the Act of Federation was being passed, they sent large bodies of troops to help the British army in the war in South Africa. Then they followed the example of Canada and tried to help on British trade by reducing the customs duties on goods produced within the Empire. They also obtained a few men-of-war to guard their own shores. In 1909 they went still farther and ordered that all their young men were to go through a certain amount of military training, so as to be able to defend their country if danger should arise. In the same year, Australia took the lead by being the first of the Dominions to create a large naval squadron of her own, to help the Royal Navy in its heavy task of protecting the possessions of the Empire in the Southern seas. Finally, on the outbreak of the German war Australia rallied to the Empire immediately and raised a national army which gained the reputation of being one of the best forces on the side of the Allies.

7. So the story of Australia in the nineteenth century is a story of wonderful progress. At the beginning of the century she was a tiny, helpless

colony; to-day her people have become a great modern State, owning the whole of one of the six continents of the world, and playing an important rôle in the affairs of the Empire and of the world.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE GROWTH OF SOUTH AFRICA

1. You will remember that the Cape of Good Hope was almost the first discovery made by the early explorers. It was reached for the first time in 1486 by Bartholomew Diaz. Drake sailed past it on his famous voyage round the world, and said that it was "the fairest cape in the whole circumference of the earth." But for a long time after that nobody stopped there. In 1620, however, two British sea captains landed at Table Bay, and took it in the name of King James I., but the English Government at that time did not want new possessions across the sea, and the claim was given up. About thirty years later, the Dutch East India Company decided to plant a station on the south-eastern coast of Africa, as a stopping-place on the way to the East, and they found Table Bay unoccupied. Their sailors used to get ill on their long journeys for want of vegetables and fresh meat, so the company sent out some families and settled them below Table Mountain to grow vegetables and buy cattle from the Hottentots for the sailors who touched at the port.

2. For some time the Dutch kept to the lands lying



JOHAN VAN RIEBEEK

**The Founder of the Dutch Settlement at the Cape, and First Dutch
Governor, 1652-1662**

round the great rock of Table Mountain and the narrow neck which joins it to the mainland. But as their numbers grew they began to want more land, and about 1680, after the Hottentots had been defeated, Simon van der Stel, the first governor, colonised the rich valleys that nestle at the foot of the mountains round the great table-land of South Africa. So the colony of Cape Town began to grow from the very beginning, and as we shall see later on, the whole history of South Africa right up to the present day, turns upon this gradual growth.

3. As the white people pushed forward in this way, the Hottentots and bushmen who lived in the country near Table Mountain either gave in to them or drew back to the high table-land which forms all the centre of South Africa. The Dutch farmers did not follow them up to the high lands, which were dry and unfruitful, but moved forward along the rich country between the edge of the table-land and the Indian Ocean. For many years they met nobody to stop them. The land was empty. But about 1779 they came across a new race of black men, the Kaffirs, who were strong and warlike, and would not give way before the white settlers. These Kaffirs were also looking for new lands. A long time ago they had lived in Central Africa, but as their numbers grew larger they had moved southwards to look for new homes along the east coast, just as the white men had pushed northward for the same reason. When the white farmers met the Kaffirs, war broke out—a war which lasted on and off for a hundred years. The Kaffirs used to raid and steal the cattle of the settlers, and the settlers used to reply by driving

the Kaffirs back and seizing some of their land. There were ten of these Kaffir wars, and the last was fought in 1878, almost exactly a hundred years after the first. In the end the natives were conquered, and white officials were set over them to govern them and see that they kept the peace.

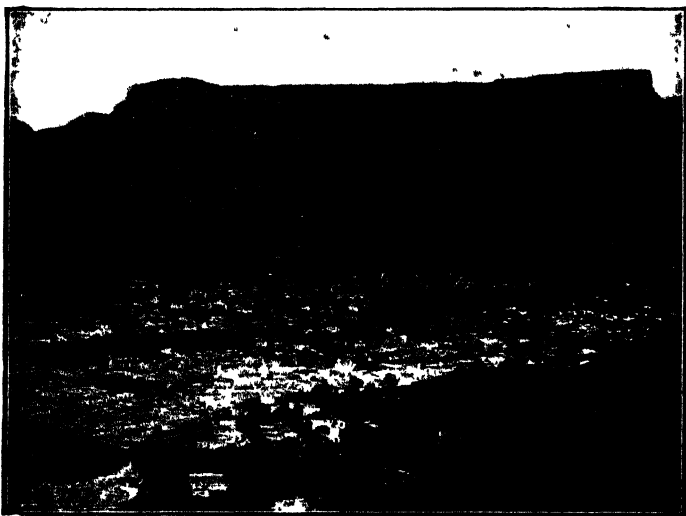


Photo: T. D. Ravenscroft

CAPE TOWN

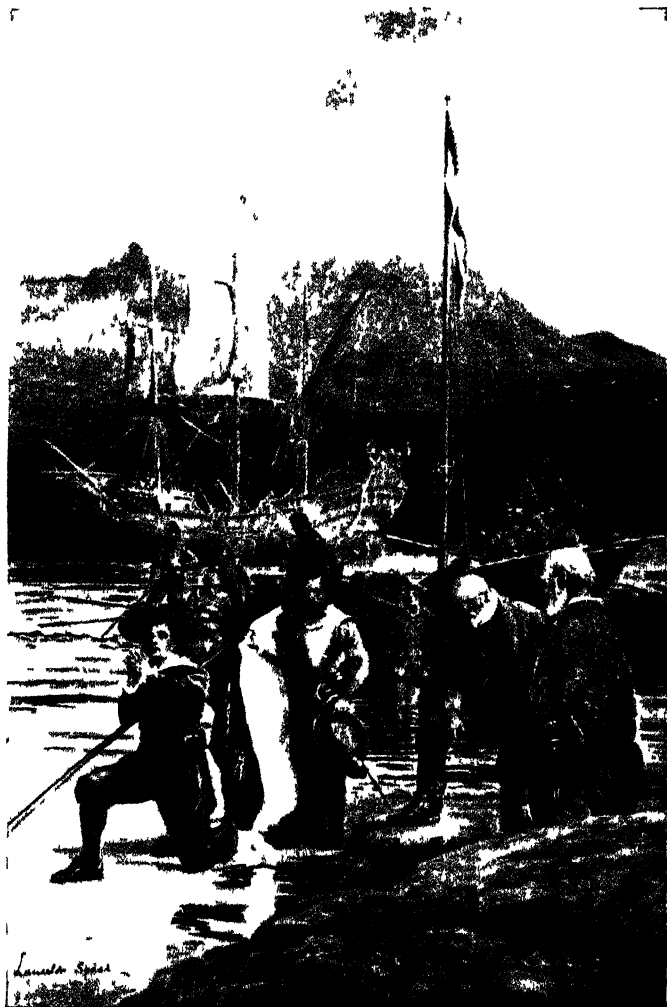
4. But long before this South Africa had become part of the British Empire. You remember that during the French Revolution France conquered Holland in order to use her fleet against England, and so, as soon as the British fleet had by its victories gained command of the sea, it tried to weaken the French by seizing the possessions of their allies. At first the Cape

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was left alone, but in 1795 a British expedition took Cape Town and declared the country a British possession. In 1802, however, it was given back to Holland by the Treaty of Amiens, but three years later, when war broke out again, it was retaken by the English, and ever since it has been a part of the British Empire.

5. For many years after this Cape Colony remained very peaceable and quiet until in 1836 an important event took place. This was the Great Trek, when a number of Dutch farmers, with their families and their flocks, crossed over the borders of Cape Colony into the unknown country beyond, to set up an independent State of their own. There were two reasons for this trek. In the first place the British Parliament had declared a year before that there was to be no more slavery anywhere in the Empire. This was a fine and noble act; but it meant a great loss to many people in South Africa, for the Government did not give them enough money to make up for all the slaves that were set free. The farmers in Cape Colony were very angry at this, because, in addition to losing their slaves, they found it difficult to obtain people to do the work on the farms. In the second place, the British Government gave back to the Kaffirs some of the lands which the settlers on the frontiers had taken from them, because it thought the natives had been unjustly treated. This also annoyed the white farmers, and they themselves had to look for new lands to take the place of the farms they had lost.

6. So a great band made up their minds to leave their homes and to go off in search of new lands far away from the interference of the Government. These



EARLY DUTCH SETTLERS AT THE CAPE
(From a Drawing by Lancelot Speed)

Boer voor-trekkers, as they were called, wandered about exploring all the country up to the Limpopo River in the north of the Transvaal. On their long journey they suffered great hardships, for they were often without food or water, and again and again found themselves at war with native tribes. Their worst adventures were in northern Natal, where they came across the fierce Zulus. The Boer leader, Piet Retief, made a treaty of peace with Dingaan, the chief of the great Zulu tribe. But Dingaan was frightened of the white men, and determined to massacre them. So he treacherously pretended to be friendly, and then suddenly attacked and murdered the whole of Piet Retief's party, and afterwards killed some other white people as well. The rest of the voor-trekkers gathered together, and in the winter of 1838 they utterly defeated Dingaan at Blood River and broke his power.

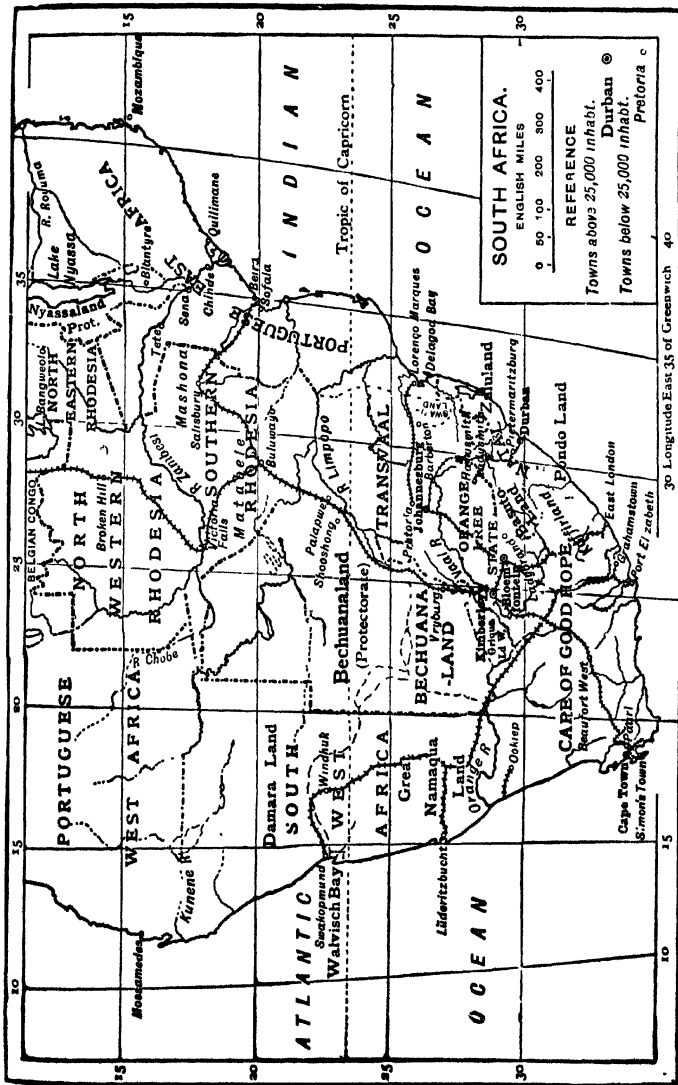
7. A few years later a quarrel broke out between the Boers and the English traders who had settled at Durban in 1824, and had been trading with the natives ever since. The end of the dispute was that Natal was annexed to the British Crown in 1844, and most of the Boers trekked back to the high veld on the top of the table-land, where they founded the republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

CHAPTER XXX

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

1. FOR some time after the Great Trek, and after Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State had been founded, the white men did not push their borders any farther towards the centre of Africa. Both the Dutch and the British were busy colonising the land they had taken, and keeping down the wild tribes who lived amongst them or on their borders. But the Great Trek had sown the seed of one very great evil, for South Africa was no longer under one government. Two other flags floated there besides the Union Jack, and difficulties began to arise between the different states. Nearly the whole history of South Africa, since 1836, is taken up by attempts to undo the results of the Great Trek. First of all, in 1848, the country which we now call the Orange Free State was annexed to the British Crown; but disputes arose with the Basuto natives, and six years later the British Government gave it up. Then, in 1859, Sir George Gray, whom you will remember as Governor of New Zealand, tried to arrange a federation of the different South African States, but in vain; and again in 1875, Lord Carnarvon made another attempt to unite them, which succeeded no better than the first.

2. Two years later the Transvaal found itself in trouble with the natives, and, as there seemed a danger



Walker & Bouall

Longmans & Co. London & New York.

that it could not stand alone, it was annexed to the British Crown. One of the conditions of the annexation was that responsible government, which had already been given to Cape Colony in 1872, should be set up in the



Photo: Elliott & Fry

SIR BARTLE FRERE

(The Governor and High Commissioner sent to the Cape by Lord Carnarvon in 1876)

Transvaal also. But the British Governor at that time was an unwise man, and he kept delaying to carry out the promise. At last the Boers grew angry and took to their arms, and in 1881 a battle was fought at Majuba. The British troops were defeated and had to surrender, and the Boers won back their independence.

3. After this war, the quarrel between the British in Cape Colony and the Dutch in the Transvaal and the Orange

Free State became very bitter, and all idea of federation had to be given up. Just about this time gold was discovered in the Transvaal, and a great rush of people poured into Johannesburg and the other mining districts from all over the world. This only

added to the difficulty, for most of the newcomers were British and they wanted political rights, while the old Boer settlers were anxious to keep the power in their own hands. Gradually things drifted from bad to worse. In 1896 Dr. Jameson and his followers made a raid into the Transvaal to try to upset the Boer Government, and from that time people began to talk of fighting between the two races. Three years later, after a last fruitless meeting between President Kruger and Sir Alfred Milner, war actually broke out. You all know the story of the South African War. After three long years of fighting, during which both sides suffered terrible hardships, it ended in the surrender of the Boer armies.

4. But sad and dreadful as the war was, it brought one great result, for the real root of all the trouble in South Africa was the presence of two rival national ideals represented by two rival flags. After the war the Union Jack waved alone over the whole land to show that it is one country, and a part of the British Empire. The effect of this was seen almost at once. In less than seven years from the time when they had been fighting one another, the Dutch and the English met together to see if they could not at last do away with the boundaries that divided South Africa into separate states. The conference, under the inspiration of General Botha, was a great success, and in 1910 the four colonies of Cape Colony, the Transvaal, Natal, and the Orange River Colony joined together in the Union of South Africa. The long struggle was at an end, for the Dutch and the British then agreed to form together a new nation.

5. But the new Union did not take in the whole

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of British South Africa. One of the bad results of the old state of disunion was that there was no government in South Africa whose business it was to watch over the interests of the whole land. So in 1884

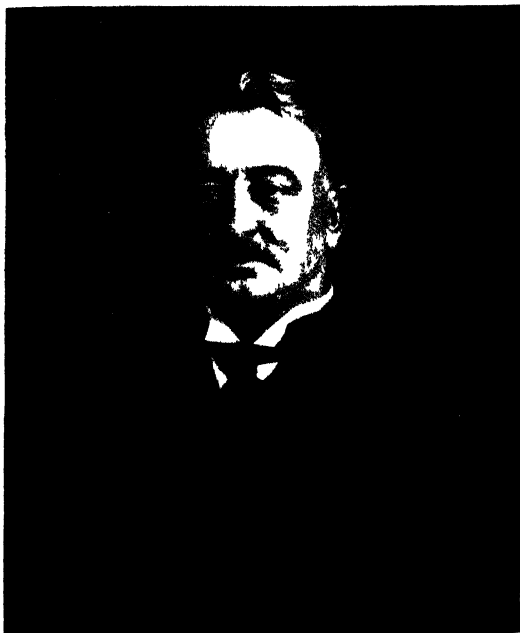


Photo: W. & D. Downey, London

RT. HON. CECIL RHODES

Germany had been able to annex part of South-west Africa, because neither the British Government nor the Government of Cape Colony would undertake the burden of looking after it. After this there was a real danger that all the country to the north of Cape Colony

would fall into the hands of some foreign power. But Cecil Rhodes saw the danger, and he saw, too, how valuable this land might become, so he determined that it should become part of the British Empire. You have probably heard how Cecil Rhodes started life as a digger working in the Kimberley diamond



Photo T D Ravenscroft

CECIL RHODES'S GRAVE ON THE MATOPPOS

Inscription on brass plate "Here lie the remains of Cecil John Rhodes"

fields, and how, by hard work and perseverance, he made a great fortune and in the end became Prime Minister of Cape Colony. After Germany had seized South-west Africa, he managed, with the help of Dr. Jameson, to win some rights from Lobengula, King of Matabeleland, the country which lies to the north

of the Transvaal. These rights enabled him to form a company to take over the country. Gradually the company grew and spread its influence, until finally it governed all the vast lands which you see painted red on the map, to the north of the Limpopo river. Cecil Rhodes had done his work, for his company had saved its possessions for South Africa and the Empire. In 1902 he died and was buried in the Matoppo Hills, in the middle of the country which is called Rhodesia in honour of his name.

6. There is one great difference we must notice between South Africa and the other great self-governing dominions of the British Empire. South Africa has an enormous native population. Besides about a million and a half of white people, there are about six millions of black people. As we have seen, in the early days the great question was how to subdue the fierce native tribes, so as to prevent them from attacking the white settlements. But now that danger has almost passed away. But a new difficulty has grown up. Since these natives have come under the British flag, the South African Government has to rule over them, educate them, and protect them from harm. Most of them are still uncivilised, and it is difficult to know how to treat them. They are like big children who are always mixing with the "grown-ups" and learning from them, but who are not yet old enough to be able to look after themselves. Sometimes they are rebellious and dangerous, sometimes they are quiet and well behaved, sometimes they are provoked because white people do not treat them properly. The great puzzle which South Africa has to answer

is how to teach all these millions of natives to become good citizens of South Africa

7. Once South Africa had settled the quarrels between her different states, and become one country, she began to grow strong and prosperous. She



Photo T D Ravenscroft

SIMON'S TOWN BAY

The headquarters of the British fleet in South Africa

is rich in minerals. The discovery of diamonds and gold brought great numbers of white men to her shores. Also, like Australia and New Zealand, she began to send fruit and corn and other farming products to England, as well as gold and precious stones. Besides this, South Africa is one of the most important naval stations of the Empire. There is a great naval dockyard

at Simon's Bay, near Cape Town, where the biggest battleship can gather coal and stores, and be repaired if damaged. For if the Suez Canal were closed, the only way to the eastern parts of the Empire would be round the south of Africa. When the great war broke out South Africa played a very notable part. Her troops first conquered German South-west Africa, then they conducted a long campaign in German East Africa, and finally they came to fight among the British forces in the European battlefields.

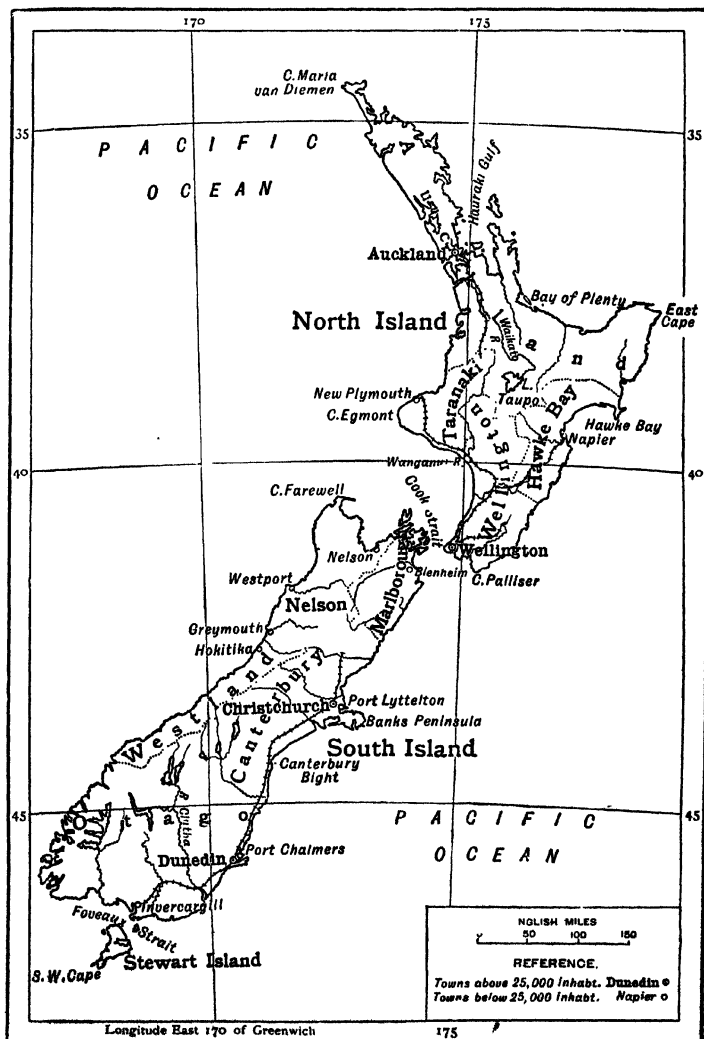
CHAPTER XXXI

THE STORY OF NEW ZEALAND

1. LET us now turn to New Zealand. It is the youngest of England's colonies, and its history begins much later than the history of the rest of the Empire, for at the beginning of the nineteenth century the Union Jack had not even been planted on its shores. It had first been discovered long before, Tasman visited it in 1642; but nobody else landed there for more than a hundred years, and its existence was practically forgotten until, in 1769, Captain Cook discovered it again on one of his voyages in the Australian seas. After that vessels used occasionally to sail to New Zealand to land a few settlers and to trade with the natives. But even as late as 1830 the number of white men there was still very small.

2. New Zealand is made up of two parts—the North Island and the South Island, together with a few other little islands close by. Together they are about the

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND



Longmans, Green & Co., London, New York, Bombay & Calcutta

Walker & Bondall

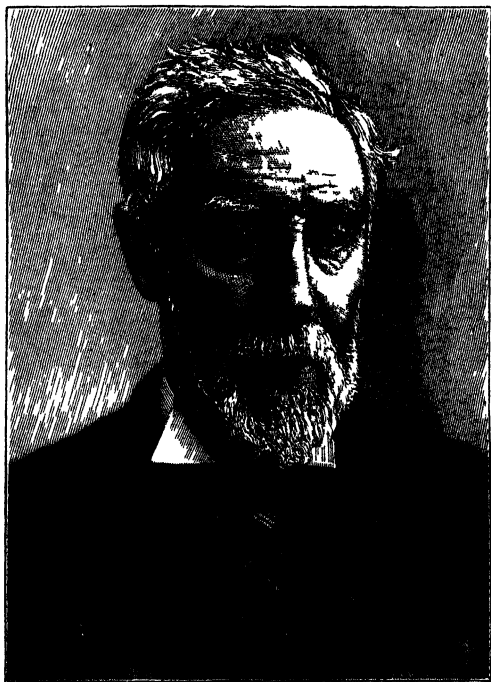
same size as the British Isles. The whole country is very mountainous, and much divided up by arms of the sea, which run far inland ; but it is very beautiful, perhaps the most beautiful of all the dominions of the Empire.

3. Soon after 1830 people came to know how rich the country was, and began to settle in New Zealand in larger numbers. You remember how Wakefield had helped to send out settlers to Australia, and now he helped to send them to New Zealand too. The first colonists made their homes in the North Island ; but about 1839 the French made a plan for seizing the South Island, and making it a French colony. As soon as the British Government heard of this they sent an expedition to take possession of it. The expedition was only just in time, for a few days after the Union Jack had been planted there a French ship arrived, only to find that it was too late.

4. For the next twenty years a steady stream of people flowed out to New Zealand. As was natural, as the number of colonists grew they began to claim to be allowed to manage their own affairs, just as the Canadians and the Australians had done. The Governor of New Zealand, Sir George Grey, was a very wise man, and he persuaded the British Government to agree, and in 1853 responsible government was granted, and two years later a parliament was elected to manage the affairs of the country.

5. At the end of 1853, however, Sir George Grey was sent away to be Governor of Cape Colony. This was a great disaster for New Zealand, for in the North Island of New Zealand there were a large number of brown people

called Maoris, who were a very brave and intelligent race, and over whom Sir George Grey had a very good influence. As soon as he left trouble began to arise.

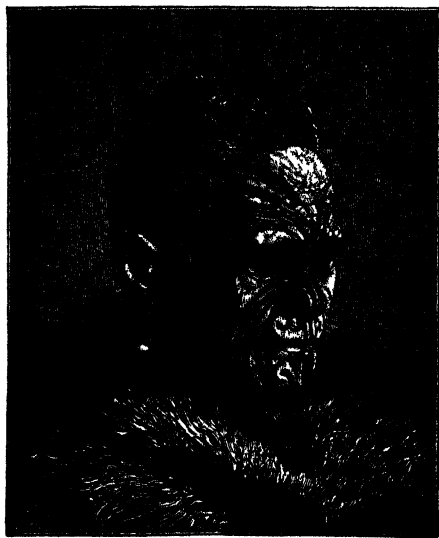


SIR GEORGE GREY

The Maori tribes lived on large tracts of land, where they were governed by their own chiefs. But as the number of the white people increased they spread more and more across these native lands, until at last the Maoris grew angry, and in 1859, although

many attempts had been made to settle the question, war broke out between them.

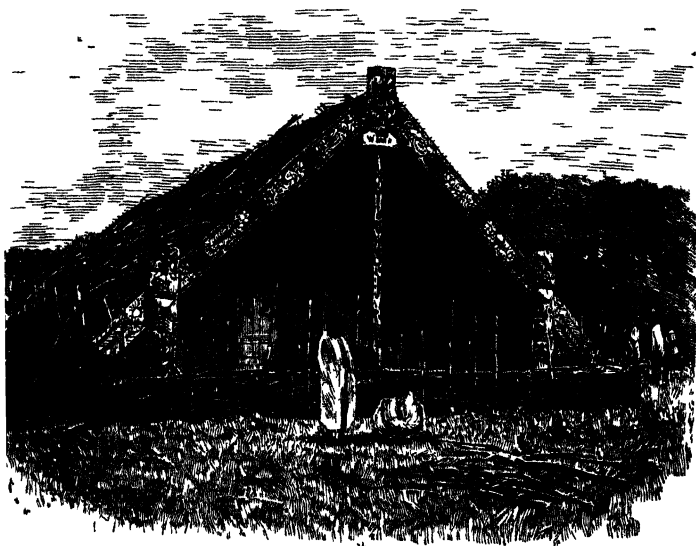
6. The Maoris were not well armed, but they knew their country, and were very brave fighters, and the war dragged on for eleven years. They defended them-



THE MAORI KING

selves in cleverly built camps, perched on rocky places that were difficult to attack. In one of these camps a few Maoris and their wives and children held out for two whole days, with hardly any food or drink, against 1300 men. The British general admired their courage so much that at last he promised to let them all go free if they would surrender; but they cried out: "We will

fight to the end, for ever, for ever, for ever." Then the general begged them to save their wives and children; but they only said, "Maori women fight like Maori men," and would not give in. But they could not hold out for ever, and at last the camp was taken. In 1870



A MAORI VILLAGE

the war came to an end, and since that date there has been peace. The Maoris were given large tracts of land on which white people are not allowed to settle, and also representation in the New Zealand Parliament, to the two houses of which they now (1911) send six members.

7. In 1861 gold was found in New Zealand, and

this discovery brought as great changes there as it had done in Australia. As the news of the first big discovery spread, there was a rush of men from all over the world to try and make their fortunes by digging for gold. All these newcomers wanted food and clothes, and so the farmers found a market for their meat and corn where before they had none. Once they had supplied all that the miners and townsmen required, they began to send their products across the seas to the British Isles. As a result, to-day New Zealand exports a great amount of frozen meat, and butter and cheese, as well as gold, and her white population has grown to about a million.

8. As soon as New Zealand had become an important country, she began to think about outside affairs and about the place she was going to take in the world, just as the other self-governing dominions had done. Her people have a firm belief in the strength and greatness of the British Empire. They know that they are a small and weak nation by themselves, and that it is the navy which really protects them from foreign enemies. But they are very far away from England, and so, as long ago as 1884, they began to arrange for their own defence. They bought a small flotilla of ships to protect their coasts, and helped to strengthen the Royal Navy by sending every year to England a gift of money to pay for part of the cost of it. When the South African War broke out, in 1899, a burst of patriotism swept over the whole country, and although the population of New Zealand is very small,

they sent ten bodies of soldiers to fight side by side with their British and Canadian and Australian brothers. Again, in 1909, when England's sea-power seemed to be in danger from Germany's great fleet, New Zealand was the first to come to the help of the Mother-country, and offered to give one or, if necessary, two Dreadnought battleships to strengthen the Navy. Afterwards it was arranged that New Zealand should buy a Dreadnought cruiser, to be the flagship of the squadron of the Royal Navy which was to sail in New Zealand waters and guard her trade and coasts. And so it was natural when the great war broke out New Zealand sent a larger contingent in proportion to her population than any other Dominion, and that the New Zealand divisions ranked with the very finest troops fighting on the Allied side.

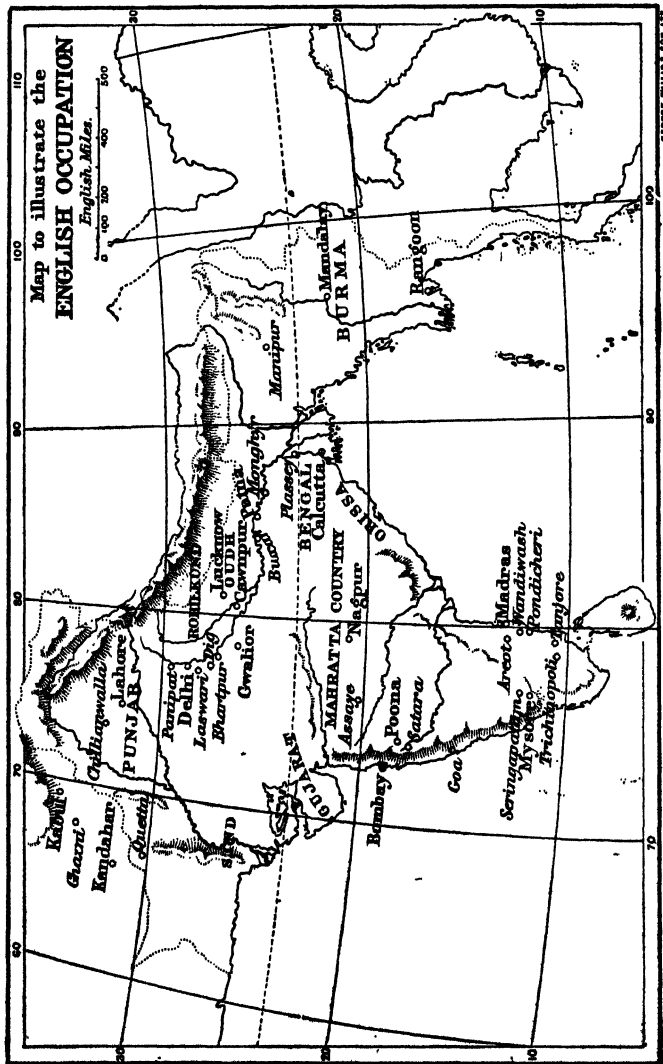
CHAPTER XXXII

INDIA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

"Not once or twice in our fair island story,
The path to duty was the way to glory:
He, that ever following her commands,
On with toil of heart and knees and hands,
Thro' the long gorge to the far light has won
His path upward, and prevail'd,
Shall find the toppling crags of duty scaled
Are close upon the shining tablelands
To which our God Himself is moon and sun."

—TENNYSON.

1. You will remember how, while England was fighting Napoleon, Wellesley managed to defeat the



French schemes for turning the English out of India, and how he made the British the greatest power in the country. Where the English ruled the land was peaceable and quiet, but where the Indian princes ruled there was often much disorder. Wellesley wanted to take the whole land under British protection, by obliging the Indian princes to promise the Government that they would rule well, and that they would not make wars against each other. But people in England did not understand how much India was oppressed by war and desolation, and they would not let the Governor-General carry out his plan of enforcing peace and order. Wellesley was recalled in 1805, and after him came two men who did not concern themselves much with what the rest of India suffered, provided only that the territories ruled by the English were well governed.

2. The result was that the rest of India suffered very much, and all those people who hated the English, because of the peace and good order which was being introduced, were very pleased, for they thought that the English were now too weak to interfere with them. But in 1813 another great man, the Earl of Moira, who afterwards became Marquis of Hastings, was sent out as Governor-General. He completed the work of Wellesley by subduing those people who were disturbing the peace of India. He defeated the Gurkhas, and made them firm friends of Britain. He also broke the remaining power of the Marathas, and put down the hordes of brigands, called Pindaris, who lived under Maratha protection. He made a series of treaties with the different princes of India, who all agreed to rule well and justly, and not to make war, on condition that

the English protected them in their states. It was really the Marquis of Hastings who laid the foundation of the Empire of India, by making peace possible throughout the whole country. From his time forward there has been very little fighting in India, except what took place with the Sikhs in the Sikh Wars and with the mutineers in 1857. It has therefore been possible for India to increase much in wealth and prosperity during the nineteenth century. Indians have been able to live in security, and to go about their business without the fear of internal war. They have been protected by the power of Britain, and have been able to grow into a nation in peace and security.

3. This work of protecting India has been a very anxious and difficult one for the English. So far as the sea was concerned, they were not alarmed, for the Navy was so strong that nothing could prevail against it. But the Navy could not protect the northern passes of the Himalayas, through which, at different times in the past history of India, invader after invader had come to bring misery and desolation upon the country. We have seen how the danger lest France should invade India passed away, but not long afterwards English statesmen began to be afraid lest Russia should invade India. The Russians were growing very powerful in Central Asia at the beginning of the nineteenth century, and they began to intrigue both with Persia and Afghanistan, so that the rulers of these countries might let Russian armies pass through their land to attack India. In order to prevent the Russians from carrying out this plan, the English tried to make friends with the Amir of Afghanistan and

the Shah of Persia. They did not succeed very well, because Russia was so strong that these rulers were afraid of her: but they did succeed in making friends with Ranjit Singh, the great Sikh prince who had made the Punjab into an independent state, and in 1809 a treaty was made which lasted thirty years, until Ranjit Singh died. The object of this treaty was to settle the boundaries between the dominions of the Sikhs and the country ruled by the English, and to bind Ranjit Singh to help the English to stop any invasions which might be planned by the Russians.

4. About 1835 it was rumoured that an invasion was being intended, and English statesmen got much alarmed. For some time nothing was done, but as in 1839 Dost Muhammad, the Amir of Afghanistan, was said to be making friends with the Russians, the English and Ranjit Singh determined to depose him, and to set up Shah Shuja, a prince who was friendly to them, but who had been turned out of Afghanistan by the Afghans themselves some time before. For two years the army of British and Indian troops which was sent to Kabul to depose Dost Muhammad remained in control of the country, trying to set up Shah Shuja, but at the end of that time there was a great uprising of the Afghans, and the British army was turned out of the country. The forces had to retreat through the difficult passes of Afghanistan in the coldest part of the year 1842, and only one man got back over the snowy mountains to India. Another army was soon sent to avenge this defeat, and as Dost Muhammad was found to be unfriendly to the Russians, he was placed upon the throne again.

5. Before this had happened, the great Ranjit Singh died, and his country of the Punjab became disorderly. He had formed a large army, which had now no one to lead it, and no one to pay it. Before long this army marched into British territory to plunder, but it was defeated in four great battles at the end of 1845 and the beginning of 1846. This was called the First Sikh War: and as a result of it, the Punjab was taken under the protection of the British, who tried to reform the administration, and make the state strong for the child heir of Ranjit Singh, the little Dhulip. But before long, trouble broke out again, because the Sikhs were discontented and invaded British territory once more. In the winter of 1848-49 the Second Sikh War broke out, and Lord Dalhousie, who was now Governor-General, decided that the Punjab should be annexed to British India. From that time forward, the Punjab has formed part of India as a whole, and has been well governed by the English.

6. When once the Punjab had been taken over by the English, the frontiers of British India ran quite close to the frontiers of Afghanistan, and it became necessary to make terms with the Amir, so that no invader could come to India through his territory. At various times agreements were made, but in 1879 and 1880 a fresh dispute broke out between India and the Amir Shere Ali, who, like Dost Muhammad, was suspected of favouring Russia. This was the Second Afghan War, and as a result of it the Amir Abdurrahman, father of the present Amir, was set upon the throne. From that time till after the great war there has been no war between Afghanistan and India, and the Amirs have

helped the English in keeping the robbers who live on the borderland in order. Baluchistan was taken under British protection, and reduced to peace and quiet: and in 1901 a new Province, the North-West Frontier Province, was constituted, so that the borderland between Afghanistan and India might be better looked after. So India by degrees gained a secure frontier on the North-West, and Russia recognised the fact in 1907, when she agreed to respect Afghanistan as being within the sphere of British influence.

7. Even now the only thing that keeps India together, and ensures law and justice and peace within it, is the British rule. India is still divided into a huge number of tribes and peoples and religions; in the part that belongs to the native princes alone there are no fewer than 600 different states. If the British were to leave the country chaos and war would certainly follow, and the whole system of railways, irrigation, justice, and administration, upon which the prosperity and happiness of the people now depend, would fall into ruins. On the other hand, the long period of British rule has been bearing fruit. The people, who previously had never thought of governing their country for themselves and had left the control in the hands of hereditary rulers, have begun to absorb the ideas about self-government developed in England and the British Empire. Since the beginning of the twentieth century the demand has sprung up that the Indian people should take some part of the burden of the government of India on to their own shoulders. This demand grew more insistent when India, like the other parts of the Empire, threw herself into the war

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against German militarism, and sent great numbers of troops who fought well and bravely in Europe, Palestine, and Mesopotamia. Accordingly in August 1917 the British Government made a formal declaration stating that the ultimate end of British policy in India was the development of responsible government in India. This declaration marked a vital turning-point in the history of India. For a century British rule had been principally concerned in giving peace, good government, education, and the equipment of modern civilisation to India. From this time, however, its purpose was to be the gradual transfer to the hands of the Indian people themselves of the responsibility of the government of the country, just in proportion as they proved their practical capacity to assume it. The first practical step in this direction was taken two years later in the passage of an Act creating popularly elected legislatures throughout India, and entrusting to them considerable powers.

9. Until the year 1857, India continued to be ruled in name by the East India Company; but between 1784 and 1857 the Government of Great Britain kept on taking more and more power away from the Company and giving it to the Parliament and people of Great Britain. Gradually the business of ruling British India became the business of Great Britain, and no longer the business of the Company. As the territories ruled over by the English in India became bigger and bigger, so did the work of governing them become more and more difficult. At first, the English made a good many mistakes, because they did not understand how the people of India thought about

things. Lord Dalhousie, who was Governor-General of India, showed how much harm could be done by making this kind of mistake. Although he did a great many good things, yet he was too impatient to reform things that needed reform, and offended many powerful people in India. So he gave an opening to the enemies of the English, both in India and outside, and these enemies persuaded some of the Indian soldiers of Britain that the English were intending to harm religion. This was quite untrue, and would never have been believed if Lord Dalhousie had not been quite so impatient in his work of reform. But the result was the outbreak of the military mutinies of 1857, in which many English and Indians lost their lives. In this fighting the Indian princes and the leaders of the Indian people took the side of the English, for they knew how much good India was getting from being a part of the British Empire. The most important result of these mutinies was the abolition of the Company. From that time onward, India has been ruled by the Crown. The great Queen Victoria issued a proclamation in which she took all Indians under her protection, and promised that they should enjoy the rights to which they were entitled.

10. From this time forward, a change came over the way in which India was ruled. She has had a Secretary of State to represent her in the British Parliament. She has been under the direct rule of the Crown, and Indians, like English, obey the orders of one and the same monarch. Further, the princes of the independent states of India have heartily co-operated with the English in securing

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the good of the country. Before the time of the Mutiny the English had been apt to look upon these princes with suspicion, and Lord Dalhousie showed, by his annexation of Oudh in 1856, that he hoped these possessions would one day become a part of British India. But after the Mutiny it was found that the princes vied with each other in loyal service to the ruler of the Empire, and did all in their power to help and not hinder the growing prosperity of India.

11. Since the abolition of the Company, India has been ruled by a succession of able Viceroys who have worked hard for her good. Lord Canning, the first Viceroy, by his wise measures helped Indians and Englishmen to forget the terrible bloodshed of 1857, and to join with each other in working for the good of India and of the Empire. Lord Mayo, to take another able Viceroy, did much for the finances of the country, and, by giving the provinces greater independence of the Central Government, helped to lay the foundations of the system of Local Self-Government, which was the work of Lord Ripon. In more recent times Lord Curzon, by his able foreign policy, helped to make India more secure, and by his energetic administration added to the efficiency of the various public services. For her own part, India has been growing stronger and more reliant, and now claims her right to stand forward as an integral part of the British Empire. By the great proclamation of August 20th, 1917, the British people admitted India's claim and declared that the goal of British rule was to be "Responsible Government" for the country.

CHAPTER XXXIII

OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS

1. WE have now learnt about the most important parts of the Empire—the British Isles, Canada, Newfoundland, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, and India. As you have seen on the map, there are a great many other British possessions all over the world, so many that there is not room to tell you the history of them all. In this chapter, therefore, we only explain how they came to be parts of the Empire, and what they are like to-day.

EGYPT

2. First of all there is Egypt and the Sudan. Since the great war Egypt has become a British Protectorate. A little more than thirty years ago it was governed by the Khedive Ismail, who was subject to the Sultan of Turkey. This Khedive borrowed a great deal of money from the English and the French, but he governed the country so badly that in 1876 the English and French Governments had to step in to save their own citizens from losing the money they had lent Ismail. Several attempts were made to put matters right, but in vain. At last, in 1882, there was a riot in Alexandria, in which many Europeans were killed, and it became necessary to do something drastic to restore good government to the country. So, as France at that time was anxious not to

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take the responsibility, England was left to settle the question alone. Alexandria was captured, Arabi, the leader of the rebellious Egyptians, was defeated at Tel-el-Kebir, and then the British troops took Cairo.



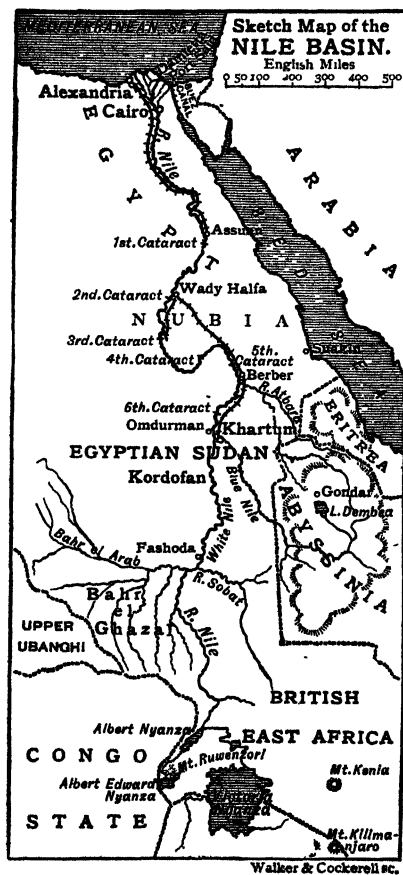
THE SUEZ CANAL

This Canal was cut through the narrow isthmus that joins Asia to Africa, to enable ships to sail along the Mediterranean into the Red Sea, and then to India. Before this, they were obliged to go all the way round the coast of Africa in order to get to India and the East. De Lesseps was the name of the great French engineer who saw the advantage of the Canal, and constructed it.

3. After that it was the British who really governed Egypt. But till the great war they always did so in the name of the Khedive, and through his Egyptian ministers. As soon as the British arrived, they set to work to bring in

a good system of government, and to improve the state of the country. Before this the people

were ground down by cruel taxes, and scourged when they were too poor to pay them. There were no railways or markets, and slavery existed in many places. Nowadays the taxes are far lighter, and slavery and scourging have been done away with; canals have been cut, and thousands of square miles have been changed from dry desert into fertile fields, and railways and telegraphs cover the land. Egypt has become a rich country, and exports much cotton and corn. She is no longer weighed down by debt, and her



people are prosperous as they never were before.

THE SUDAN

4. The part which England took in the affairs of Egypt led her inevitably into the Sudan, the great stretch of land which lies to the south. In 1879, General Gordon went to carry out an order of the Khedive to put an end to slavery in the Sudan. This made the Arab slave-dealers very angry, and, after Gordon had left the country, a leader called the Mahdi gathered together a wild army of Dervishes and became tyrant of the Sudan. The Dervishes used to wander about, murdering the people and behaving with the most horrible cruelty. At last they became so strong that they surrounded General Gordon, who had gone out again to take charge of the troops and to try to restore order, and shut him up in Khartoum. For a long time he held out against them, but the British were slow in helping him, and before they could reach him Khartoum was taken by the Mahdi in 1885, and all its brave defenders were killed.

5. For some time after this the Sudan was left alone. But in 1895 the Mahdi's successor, the Khalifa, began to make preparations for the invasion of Egypt, so an army was sent into the Sudan, under Lord Kitchener, to break his power. A great victory was won at Omdurman, the Khalifa overthrown, and the Sudan was finally brought under joint Egyptian and British rule (1898). The terror of the Dervishes has now disappeared, and, like Egypt, the country is growing rich and prosperous under the protection of both the British and Egyptian flags.

EAST AND WEST AFRICA

6. The Empire has many other possessions in Africa. On the east there is British East Africa and Uganda, which runs from the Sudan on the North to the Indian Ocean near Zanzibar. On the west are North and South Nigeria, the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, and Gambia. All these are in the Tropics, and in time they will be very rich and valuable parts of the Empire. The first thing that the British had to do when they came into possession of these lands was to root out all the horrors of the savage days—like torture, and cannibalism, and the slave-trade. That done, they began to train the people and to civilise them, and to build railways, and improve the whole state of the country. This great work is steadily being carried out to-day. The people are becoming peaceful and contented. A proper system of government is being set up, and the trade of these countries in rubber, gold, tin, copper, and similar things, is growing by leaps and bounds.

THE WEST INDIES

7. You remember how the West Indian Islands were some of the first of the British conquests. The most important of them are Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados, the Bahamas, the Windward Islands, and the Leeward Islands. Close by them is British Guiana on the north of South America, and British Honduras in Central America, not far from the Panama Canal. All these places grow quantities of rubber, mahogany, sugar, and tobacco.

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THE EAST INDIES

8. The chief British possessions in the Far East are Ceylon at the foot of India, the Straits Settlements, part of the island of Borneo, Hong Kong in China, and a great many little islands in the Pacific Ocean. These places are mostly valuable because of the minerals and the rubber and woods which they export. Hong Kong is an important naval station.

NAVAL STATIONS

9. You understand now how the Empire stretches all over the world. The only thing that binds it all together is the sea, and unless the British fleet is strong enough to prevent it, any of its parts may be cut off and attacked by some enemy. But a fleet, when it is on a long journey, must be able to pick up stores and water for its crew, and coal and ammunition for its engines and guns, for not even the largest battleship can steam ahead for ever. So some of the most important parts of the Empire are the naval and coaling stations, which are the stopping-places between its different ports. There is a map to show you which these are.

Important Dates in the Fourth Period (1815-1900)

1826. First settlement in Western Australia.

1830. New Zealand colonised.

1832. Reform Bill passed.

1833. Slavery abolished throughout the British dominions.

1834. First settlement in Southern Australia.

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- 1836. Great Trek in South Africa.
- 1838. Zulus defeated in Natal (South Africa).
- 1839-41. First Afghan War in India.
- 1840. Responsible government granted to Canada.
- 1840. Transportation of convicts to Australia abolished.
- 1841. Hong Kong ceded to Great Britain.
- 1844. Annexation of Natal.
- 1845-6. First Sikh War in India.
- 1849. Second Sikh War—Punjab annexed.
- 1849. Colony of Victoria created in Australia.
- 1849. Navigation laws repealed.
- 1851. Gold discovered in Australia.
- 1851. Responsible government granted to New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania.
- 1856. Annexation of Oude in India.
- 1857. Indian Mutiny—End of East India Company.
- 1859. Sir George Grey tries to federate South African States.
- 1859. Responsible government granted to New Zealand.
- 1859. Responsible government granted to Queensland.
- 1859-70. Maori wars in New Zealand.
- 1861. American Civil War.
- 1861. Gold discovered in New Zealand.
- 1864. British Baluchistan annexed in India.
- 1867. British North America Act—Dominion of Canada created, consisting of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.
- 1872. Responsible government granted to Cape Colony.
- 1875. Lord Carnarvon tries to federate South African States.
- 1876. Queen Victoria becomes Empress of India.
- 1878. Last Kaffir War in South Africa.
- 1878. Transvaal annexed.
- 1879-80. Second Afghan War in India.
- 1881. Boers win the battle of Majuba—Transvaal regains its independence.
- 1882. Egyptians defeated at Tel-el-Kebir.
- 1885. Nile Expedition—Fall of Khartoum—Death of General Gordon.
- 1885. Transcontinental railway in Canada completed.
- 1885. Lower Burmah annexed.
- 1886. Straits Settlements annexed.
- 1886. Witwatersrand goldfields discovered in the Transvaal.

1888. British South Africa Company founded to colonise Rhodesia.
1890. Responsible government granted to West Australia.
1896. Jameson raid into the Transvaal.
1898. Battle of Omdurman—Conquest of the Sudan.
1899–1902. South African War.
1900. Creation of Australian Commonwealth.
1907. New Zealand made a Dominion of the Empire.
1909. Australia undertakes to build a naval squadron.
1909. New Zealand offers a *Dreadnought* to the British Government.
1910. Union of South Africa.

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE GREAT WAR

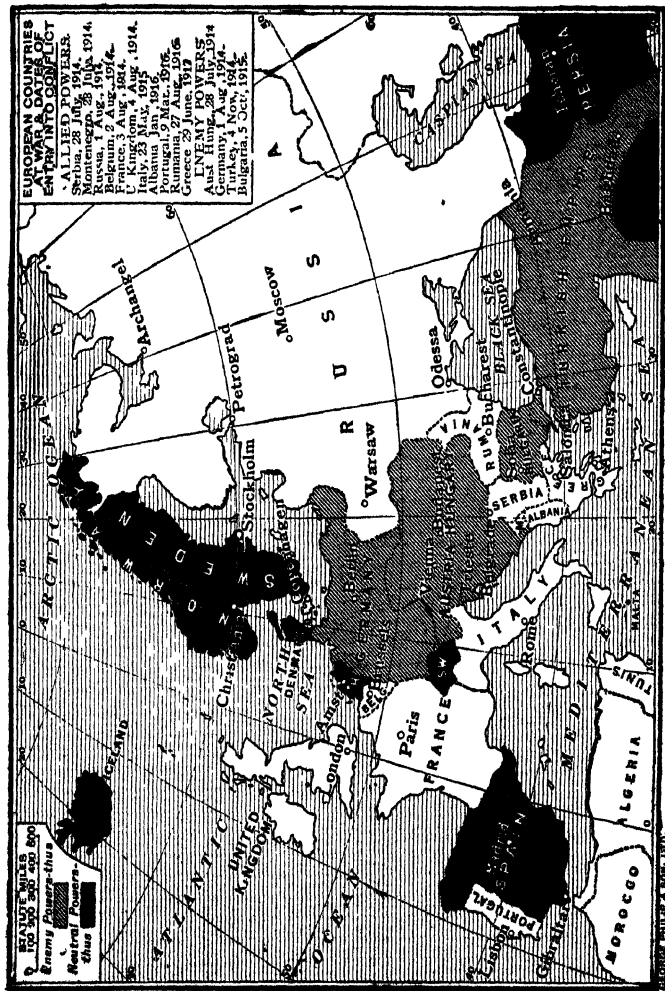
“One who never turned his back but marched breast forward,
Never doubted clouds would break,
Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would triumph,
Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better,
Sleep to wake.”

—BROWNING.

1. WE have seen that the nineteenth century was a period of internal development and comparative peace for the British Empire. But with the opening of the twentieth century a new time of trial and danger set in for its people. Between the years 1866 and 1870 Bismarck had united the scattered states of Germany into a single empire. He did so by making Prussia predominant in Germany in three successful wars—the first against Denmark, the second against Austria, and the third against France. The Prussian State, however, was founded upon the belief that in the last resort what kept a community united and law-abiding was

not love of liberty and justice and loyalty to one another, but force ruthlessly used by an autocratic Government. So, as he said himself, the new German Empire was founded on "blood and iron," that is to say, on the authority of an hereditary Kaiser supported by the conscription of all the citizens into an immense army bound to obey his will.

2. For thirty years the German Government was busy in strengthening the new State and making it rich. But by the beginning of the present century it began to think of extending its power in Europe and the outside world. Kaiser William II. became the special champion of this policy, and especially of building up a great navy, greater than the British Navy, with which to seize from Britain the command of the seas. The result of this steady growth in the German Army and Navy, and of constant attempts by Germany to settle international problems according to its own will by threats of war, was the formation of the entente whereby Great Britain ranged herself alongside France and Russia for the purpose of resisting German aggression. While, however, the policy of Germany was becoming more and more domineering and aggressive in foreign affairs, the Kaiser and his Government were becoming more and more afraid of the democratic movement in Germany itself, which aimed at making the Reichstag (Parliament) supreme in Germany instead of the Kaiser. Accordingly, a strong party grew up which advocated war in order both to establish the supremacy of Germany in Europe and on the seas, and to defeat the movement towards democracy.



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MAP OF THE WAR IN EUROPE

3. The assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne by a Bosnian gave the Kaiser and the military party the opportunity they sought for provoking a war. Every effort was made by Great Britain to avert it, but on 4th August 1914, when it had become clear that Germany intended to tear up the treaty of neutrality and invade Belgium in order to overwhelm France, war was formally declared against Germany by the British Empire.

4. It would take too long to describe here the course of the great struggle. Briefly, in 1914 the great German attack in the West was arrested by the French at the battle of the Marne, fought on 6th September, in which seven divisions of the British regular army—the "Old Contemptibles" as they were called—played an immortal part; and was finally broken at the first battle of Ypres, fought at the end of October, where the British, gallantly assisted by the French, closed the road of advance to the Channel ports. During this autumn, too, Turkey joined Germany, and so closed the communications between Russia and the Western Allies.

5. In 1915, while the British Empire was straining every nerve to create new armies and to manufacture munitions, the German allies totally defeated the Russian armies and rolled them back far into Russia. As against this, however, Italy decided in the spring to throw in her lot with the Allies. So far as the British Empire was concerned most of the fighting during this year took place at Gallipoli, where British forces, including the famous Anzac contingents from Australia and New Zealand, vainly endeavoured to open

the road to Russia through the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus. Late in the autumn, after the failure of the second attempt to force the straits, Bulgaria joined the German alliance. German and Austrian troops then overran Serbia in order to link up with Bulgaria



Photo Russell & Sons

LORD BEATTY

and Turkey, and British and French troops, leaving the Dardanelles, occupied Salonica in order to prevent Germany seizing Greece and its harbours in the Mediterranean.

6. In the following year there were three principal

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events. First was the great German attempt to defeat the French Army by an intense offensive against Verdun—perhaps the most fiercely contested battle of the war—in which, after more than six months' continuous fighting, the French were finally completely successful in beating off the attack. Second was the Battle of Jutland, fought on 31st May–1st June 1916, which finally proved the supremacy of the British Navy over the German Navy. And third was the British offensive on the Somme, which, though not fully successful in breaking the German line, relieved the pressure on Verdun, exhausted greatly the Germans, and proved the splendid quality of the new armies raised and trained in Britain and the Dominions during the preceding year.

7. During the winter of 1917 the Germans and Austro-Hungarians overran Rumania, which had joined the Allies in the preceding autumn; but the effect of the Somme battle was seen in the withdrawal of the German armies in the West to the famous Hindenburg Line in the early spring. On the other hand, on 1st February the famous German submarine campaign came into force whereby Germany hoped to force the Allies to give in by cutting off supplies and foodstuffs which they obtained from overseas. This was followed by two events of great importance. On 8th March the Russian revolution broke out, and on 2nd April the United States declared war on Germany and joined the Allies. The military history of the year was chiefly occupied by a series of offensives—a Franco-British attack in April, and two British attacks later on in the year at Messines and on the Passchendael

Ridge, none of which was successful in breaking through the German line. Late in the year the Germans organised an assault on the Italian lines at Caporetto and drove the Italian army back to the



Photo Melcy

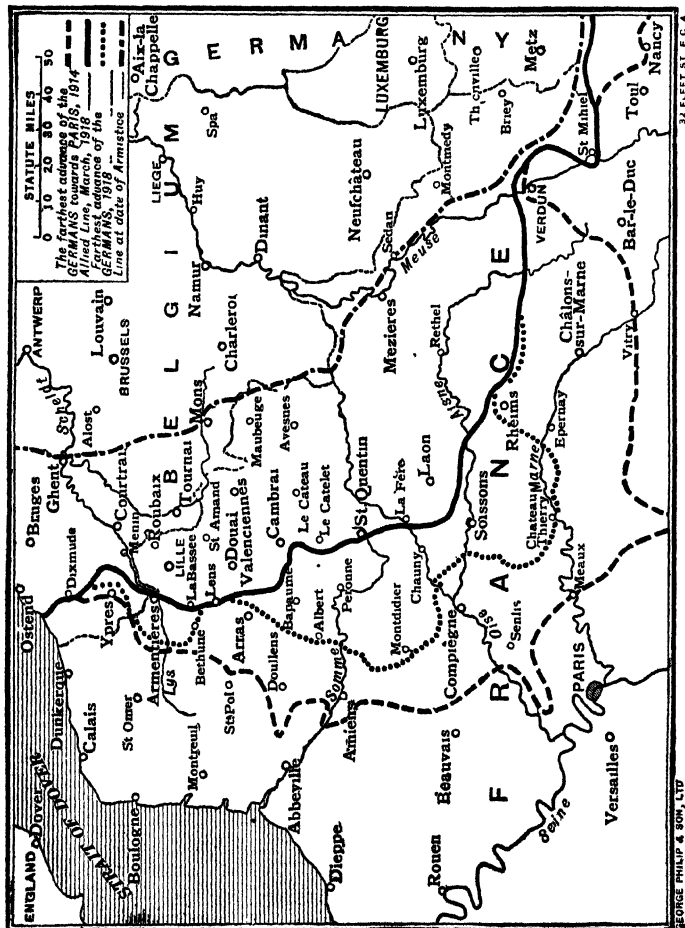
MARSHAL FOCH

River Piave on the Italian plains. On the other hand, a British army under General Allenby defeated the Turks and recovered Jerusalem for Christendom

8. In 1918 the great struggle finally came to a head. Profiting by the gradual disintegration of the Russian

Army by the Bolshevik revolutionaries, and hoping to destroy the Allied armies before the American Army was trained and transported to Europe, the German military leaders threw their whole strength into a tremendous attack on the British Army which began on 21st March, hoping to drive it back into the sea. For a few weeks the issue hung in doubt, but finally the indomitable tenacity of the British armies brought the German offensive to a standstill. Meanwhile, Marshal Foch had been made Commander-in-Chief and the American troops were being raced over to Europe. The Germans made one or two further attacks, but by 17th July Marshal Foch was ready and began that series of operations which never ceased until the Germans were forced to crave for an Armistice, concluded on 11th November, and the Allied armies occupied the bridgeheads across the Rhine. Earlier in the autumn General Allenby had finally defeated the Turks, the Allied armies had overthrown the Bulgarians, and the Italians, assisted by British and French troops, had overwhelmed the Austro-Hungarian army. So that by the date of the German collapse the whole enemy combination was prostrate on the ground.

9. Early in 1919 the leaders of the Allies, M. Clemenceau for France, Mr Lloyd George for Great Britain, President Wilson for the United States, Signor Orlando for Italy, and a host of other plenipotentiaries representing the Dominions and half the nations of the world, assembled in Paris to draw up the Peace. Only Russia, which was still in the hands of the Bolsheviks and in the throes of civil war, was not represented.



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After long negotiations the Peace was signed with Germany on 28th June. By it Germany was forced to return Alsace-Lorraine to France, to agree to the creation of an independent Poland with Danzig as a free port, to give up all her colonies, to reduce her Army and Navy to the very smallest size, to undertake to pay reparation to the utmost of her power for the damage she had caused to those she had injured, and to allow the trial of those most responsible for crimes committed during the war. The Austro-Hungarian Empire disappeared, and the States of Rumania, Czecho-Slovakia, Austria, Jugo-Slavia, and Hungary took its place. Bulgaria was reduced in size and Turkey was deprived of all communities which it had formerly governed of non-Turkish race. As the crown of the whole peace settlement, the League of Nations was brought into being as the means of settling international disputes by consultation in which reason and fair-play could have full scope, instead of by war. Finally the Peace Conference decided to hand over German East and South-West Africa, Mesopotamia, and Palestine to the British Empire, which was to be responsible for seeing that their inhabitants were properly governed and educated.

10. But to understand the meaning of the Great War properly, we must see that it means much more than the military overthrow of Germany. In the first place, it has led to the triumph of democracy, or of government by representatives of the people, over autocracy or government by hereditary right. Throughout all Europe the old autocracies have disappeared and popular governments have taken their place. In the

second place, the war has broken down the barrier separating America from Europe. It proved that the ideals of America and the most progressive nations of Europe, and especially of Great Britain, were the same; that if these ideals were to spread, or even to be preserved, it was necessary for all the free nations to



Photo: Bassano

LORD HAIG

stand and work together for liberty and peace. In the third place, it brought home to all mankind that if wars were to be avoided in the future the leading nations must take counsel together, so as to get to understand one another, and settle international disputes with fairness and goodwill, instead of relying upon armies and

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navies with which to get their own way. It has made people recognise that the world is really a unity, and that armies and navies ought to be used like policemen in defence of international law and order, and not for selfish ends.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH AND THE WAR

“O living will that shalt endure
When all that seems shall suffer shock,
Rise in the spiritual rock,
Flow thro’ our deeds and make them pure,

That we may lift from out of dust
A voice as unto him that hears,
A cry above the conquer’d years
To one that with us works, and trust,

With faith that comes of self-control,
The truths that never can be proved
Until we close with all we loved,
And all we flow from, soul in soul.”

—TENNYSON, *In Memoriam*.

1. THE Great War of 1914–19 was the fifth of the struggles which England had fought against the attempt of the great autocracies of Europe to crush freedom in the world. The first was the war against Philip II. of Spain and the Spanish Armada in 1688. The second was against Louis XIV., and ended with the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The third dragged out during the middle of the eighteenth century, also against France; and the fourth was the war against Napoleon, of which the two principal battles were

Trafalgar by sea in 1805, and Waterloo on land in 1815. Each of them ended in the failure of the attempt of the Continental power to establish its dominion over Europe or to crush England's liberty by wresting from her the command of the sea. So it was in this case also. Germany failed in her plan to establish a despotism over Europe, and failed also, both at the Battle of Jutland and by the submarine campaign, to take away from Britain the command of the seas.

2. But there was one difference between this last struggle for liberty and the earlier ones which we must notice. During the four preceding wars England had fought alone. In this she had the whole-hearted and single-minded support of all the other peoples making up the Empire. No sooner did Britain take up on 4th August 1914 the challenge to liberty thrown down by Germany than the whole British Commonwealth sprang to arms like one man. Lord Kitchener mobilised national armies at home such as had never been dreamt of in British history, which fought doggedly and victoriously from the first to the last day of a more than four years' war. Mr Lloyd George organised the industries of the Empire so as to produce munitions and supplies not only for the British armies and navies, but for half the Allies as well. Each of the Dominions raised national armies which rapidly won renown in the sternest battlefields of the war—Canada at Ypres, Vimy, and in the last great thrust of 1918; Australia and New Zealand at Gallipoli, on the Somme, and throughout 1918; South Africa in German West and East Africa, as well as in France. Indian troops too fought with great courage and suc-

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cess in Europe, Mesopotamia, and Palestine. The total effort made by the peoples of the British Commonwealth in the Great War may be seen from the following table of the number of men raised by each :—

Regular Army and Territorial Forces on 4th August

1914	733,514
England afterwards recruited	4,006,158
Wales and Monmouthshire	272,924
Scotland	557,618
Ireland (excluding those enlisted out of Ireland)	134,202
Canada	628,964
Australia	416,809
New Zealand	220,099
South Africa	136,070
Newfoundland	11,922
Other Colonies, etc	12,000
Total white enlistments	<u>7,130,280</u>

The figures for races other than white were approximately as follows:—

India--

At the outbreak of war	239,561
Recruited up to 30th September 1918	1,161,789
South Africa	92,837
West Indies	10,000
Other Colonies	20,000
Total of other races	<u>1,524,187</u>
Grand total all races	<u>8,654,467</u>

3. Throughout the whole struggle the British Empire played a leading part. The British Navy had the task of watching the German Navy and preventing it from coming out to hinder supplies coming to the Allies across the seas. It had also to defeat the very

serious submarine campaign against merchant shipping. Though it fought no very decisive action save the Battle of the Falkland Islands, when the German Pacific squadron was destroyed, it accomplished both tasks with complete success, and at the end of the



LORD KITCHENER

war its superiority at sea was more unchallenged than at the beginning. On land, though the brave and gallant French people bore the heaviest losses and had the hardest fighting, the British armies carried most of the burden in the latter part of the war, and Marshal Foch said that it was the hammer strokes of

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the armies of the Empire which broke the German resistance in 1918. In this war, too, for the first time, women played an invaluable and heroic part, as nurses, in auxiliary corps, and in making munitions. Altogether the Empire lost nearly a million men in dead. To these we all owe a debt of undying gratitude for that they were willing to lay down their lives that future generations might have freedom and happiness and life more abundantly.

4. Let us now consider the effects of the Great War upon the Empire. The first effect was undoubtedly to deepen the devotion of all its people to the Empire and what it stood for. They began to see that it was the greatest bulwark of freedom and order and justice in the world, having for the fifth time defeated the attempt of autocracy to overthrow liberty and to destroy the freedom of the seas. It was also the means whereby order and justice and good government were maintained among nearly 400,000,000 people still only beginning to learn how to govern themselves. Then, too, it was the only institution which was able to unite into a single commonwealth hundreds of millions of people, of many races, religions, and colours, and including even self-governing nations. The war had shown that the British Commonwealth threatened nobody, but was something to be loved and supported and improved by all its members.

5. The second effect of the war was to strengthen the national feeling of the Dominions. The promptitude with which they entered the war, the great armies they raised, and the victories and reputation they gained in the war, all served to prove that the four

younger nations of the Empire—Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand,—which for more than fifty years had been growing up in peace behind the shield of Great Britain and the Navy, had now become nations themselves. They had proved their title to equality with Great Britain in the conduct of the Empire's affairs. This was recognised in the meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet in the summer of 1917, in which the Prime Ministers of the Dominions sat with the leading British Ministers as the supreme body directing Imperial policy. And it was recognised still more clearly at the Peace Conference, when the Prime Ministers of all the nations of the Empire sat together as the British Peace Delegation, and when Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand became members of the League of Nations in their own right. The problem of combining the national self-government of the Dominions with the unity of the Empire, so that each part can retain control of its own affairs and yet share in the responsibilities of the Empire as a whole, has not yet been solved. But there can be little doubt that ere long a way will be found.

6. The war also had a great effect on the peoples of the Empire not yet governing themselves. They threw themselves into the struggle with courage and enthusiasm. Great armies of volunteers were raised in India, and almost all other parts of the Empire—Egypt, the West Indies, East and West Africa, and the far Eastern settlements—sent men to fight or labour for the cause of freedom. Accordingly, after the war was over it came to be seen more clearly than before that the purpose of the British Empire was not merely to

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maintain order and justice and good government, among the more backward peoples, but to teach them how to govern themselves. In other words, the British Empire was a school of self-government for its members as well as a protector of their liberty. So in 1919 a beginning was made with the most advanced people, and an Act was passed introducing the beginning of responsible government in India, and providing that more and more of the responsibility for government should be transferred to the shoulders of the Indian people in proportion as they showed themselves able to assume it. At the same time steps were taken to introduce a similar system in Egypt.

7. There was one other effect of the war which we must notice before we close this chapter. We remember how the English-speaking world was split in two by the American Revolution of 1776. The Great War of 1914 began the process of reconciliation. The United States had absorbed so many of the peoples of Europe as immigrants that it took time for her to make up her mind as to what she ought to do in the war. But once she had decided to join the Allies in 1917, she threw herself into the task with tremendous energy and success. By the end of the war, barely eighteen months after she had entered it, she had 2,000,000 troops in Europe, and it was the presence and fighting strength of these troops which enabled Marshal Foch to turn the German tide and made possible the decisive victory of 1918. Thus the war brought America back into contact with the world's affairs, and directly she did so we find America and Great Britain fighting side by side. It could not be otherwise, for their ideals were

the same, and it is the fact that fundamentally the two peoples have the same ideas of justice, and freedom, and democracy, and progress, which makes it certain that now they have begun to deal with the world problems together, they will find themselves drawn more and more together, and so healing the wounds and separation of the past. And this will be a good thing for the world, for no peoples stand higher in the scale of civilisation than the peoples of the United States and the British Empire, and if they unite in helping the backward parts of the world to learn more about freedom and law and self-government, all the forces of ignorance and reaction will be unable to hinder their success.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE FOUNDATIONS OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

"It is not to be thought of that the flood
 Of British freedom, which, to the open sea
 Of the world's praise, from dark antiquity
 Hath flowed, 'with pomp of waters, unwithstood,'
 Roused though it be full often to a mood
 Which spurns the check of salutary bands,
 That this most famous Stream in bogs and sands
 Should perish ; and to evil and to good
 Be lost for ever. In our halls is hung
 Armoury of the invincible knights of old :
 We must be free or die, or speak the tongue
 That Shakespeare spake ; the faith and morals hold
 Which Milton held. In everything we are sprung
 Of Earth's first blood, have titles manifold."

—WORDSWORTH.

1. At the beginning of this little book we saw that the foundations of the greatness of Britain lay in the

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character of its people. We saw how, behind the protection of the sea, they had been able to develop a free system of government while the peoples of the Continent had been harried by wars and tyrannous kings. We saw how they secured justice for the individual by inventing the system of trial by jury, and won liberty for all by gradually placing the whole control of government into the hands of a Parliament elected by the people themselves. We saw finally how the colonists from Great Britain had taken these ideas of justice and liberty and democracy to their new lands and built up communities based upon them overseas, and how the rulers and officials sent out by Britain to govern the backward peoples took the same ideas with them and applied them as best they could to the different conditions in India and elsewhere.

2. The British Empire, therefore, is really founded upon certain great principles of justice and equality and liberty to which its peoples have been faithful. It has been their fidelity to these principles which has brought them into conflict time after time with the great autocratic Empires of Europe which endeavoured to destroy them, and which has led them to some of their greatest achievements. We have seen how it enabled them to discover trial by jury and Parliamentary government. It led them also to abolish slavery. In 1807 it was made a crime for any British sailor to take part in the cruel slave trade, and in 1833 all slaves throughout the British Dominions were declared free. This example has since been followed by the whole civilised world. Similarly it led them, for the first time in history, to govern the dependencies of the Empire not in their

own interest but in the interest of the peoples themselves. Britain has never drawn any revenues from her possessions, and great numbers of men and women have devoted their lives—as civil servants, missionaries, and doctors—to civilising and helping the backward and oppressed peoples living under the Union Jack, so that in time they should learn to govern themselves.

3. As a consequence of this fidelity to principle the British Empire is the greatest political structure in the world. It contains more than 400,000,000 people—a quarter of the whole population of the globe. It contains peoples of every grade of civilisation, from the progressive Western democracies through the ancient but unprogressive civilisations of India and Egypt to the almost primitive peoples of Africa. It contains members of nearly all the races and religions of the world. Yet it is able to keep the peace among them all, to give liberty and opportunity to every individual, to give self-government to all who are fit to exercise it, and training in self-government to those who are not, and finally to protect them from foreign attack and oppression. It is thus the greatest force for peace, freedom, and progress in the world, and its collapse would be a calamity for mankind. What of its future?

4. Of its future no one can prophesy with certainty. But we may be sure that it will continue to help mankind and bless its own citizens, only so long as those citizens are themselves working out the ideals which have built it up. Every nation is the outward and visible expression of the thoughts and acts of the people. If the peoples of the Empire love justice and freedom and fair-play as they have done in the past,

if they place their ideals before wealth or personal glory or ease, then the lessons of the Great War will not have been learnt in vain. If they are inspired by a genuine zeal to work hard to make the world a better place for others as well as themselves to live in, if they are willing to give up bad habits and outworn traditions where the common good clearly calls, then there is no doubt that the Empire will survive. But it cannot be too clearly understood that its future depends upon the qualities and actions of its citizens and upon nothing else. There is no short road to greatness, nobility, or success. The price of liberty is eternal vigilance. And if the British Empire is to continue to stand in the vanguard of human progress it will only be because all its citizens continue to show the spirit which came out so splendidly in the Great War.

“Ye that have faith to look with fearless eyes
 Beyond the tragedy of a world at strife
 And know that out of death and night shall rise
 The dawn of ampler life :

Rejoice, whatever anguish rend the heart,
 That God has given you the priceless dower
 To live in these great times and have your part
 In Freedom's crowning hour,

That ye may tell your sons who see the light
 High in the heavens—their heritage to take—
 ‘I saw the powers of darkness take their flight ;
 I saw the morning break.’”

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